

UNIVERSIDADE DE LISBOA
FACULDADE DE LETRAS
DEPARTAMENTO DE ESTUDOS ANGLÍSTICOS



**ENGLISH AS A LINGUA FRANCA:
BRIDGING THE GAP BETWEEN THEORY AND PRACTICE
IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING**

Lili Lopes Cavalleiro

DOUTORAMENTO EM LINGUÍSTICA
ESPECIALIDADE EM LINGUÍSTICA APLICADA

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Dissertação orientada pela
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Acknowledgements

Academic work is everything but a lonely endeavor, so I would like to take this opportunity to thank those who were a part of this process by contributing ideas and offering support.

First of all, I am genuinely grateful for the support and expertise offered by my supervisor, Professor Maria Luísa Fernandes Azuaga, who has always kept faith in me throughout these years. Together, we embarked on a worldwide journey in which ELF was the principal motif to learn, reflect on and reconsider, while at same time growing and sharing new experiences.

The University of Lisbon Centre for English Studies (ULICES), in general, and the Linguistics research group I belong to, in specific, have likewise played an essential part in my progress as a researcher. ULICES has allowed me to not only do research in my field of studies, but it has also made it possible for me to go abroad and participate in international conferences. In addition, with other fellow researchers and PhD candidates, I have been able to exchange ideas, frustrations and victories; hence, creating an essential network of mutual support and friendship.

I would also like to thank the several English language coordinators I have had at the English department at FLUL, who have always understood and encouraged those writing their PhD dissertations. All this would not have been possible without their support. My fellow colleagues at the department have likewise played an important part throughout this process, especially those with whom I have had the opportunity and privilege to work with more closely, and who have been there with kind words of encouragement and support.

I am indebted as well to those who made this study possible, namely the teacher trainees enrolled in the Teaching MA programs and their respective course directors at the University of Lisbon, University of Aveiro, University of Coimbra, University of Porto and the New University of Lisbon during the academic years of 2011/2012 and 2012/2013. Their collaboration was essential to fulfil my research.

I am also exceptionally grateful to Susana Clemente for her friendly, intelligent and patient assistance with the SPSS statistical analysis of the questionnaires.

I cannot forget to thank my friends from both near and far, and they know who they are, for their unconditional support, understanding and help during this period.

Lastly, without the loving encouragement of my family I would have not been able to achieve all this. To my parents, I thank them for their constant assistance, understanding and patience throughout the several ups and downs that writing a dissertation entails.

To my best friend and partner, I am equally indebted for always encouraging me to do better and to be better. Your love, support and chocolate croissants helped make this journey much sweeter.

Thank you all.

Abstract

As the current global lingua franca, most interactions in English occur between non-native speakers, who use it both intra- and internationally. Still, English Language Teaching (ELT) has not quite adapted to this reality, as teaching methods have hardly considered learners' languages (Alptekin 2002) as well as other varieties and cultures. The reason lies on educational systems' policies being mainly centered on monolingual native speakers (NS), rather than on pluricentric users of English. As today's needs comprise a plethora of domains, other skills besides grammar and lexis are vital. Change is needed for an approach more centered on intercultural communication, where cultural/social values can be explored. Teacher education programs are therefore the ideal way to introduce new approaches to ELT, as both theory and practice play a crucial role in the training and development of trainees.

Bearing this in mind, this thesis begins by defining English as Lingua Franca (ELF) in contrast to English as a Foreign Language, followed by an explication of how ELT has developed. Key concepts, such as language, culture, intelligibility and (intercultural) communicative competence are also revised in light of an ELF viewpoint, which is offered as an additional approach for ELT. Since many ELT teachers resist change, pre-service teacher education programs are seen as the solution for training and developing ELT teachers with broader views. This results in the research questions that analyze trainees' attitudes on English and ELT, and whether or not teacher programs influence their views on these issues. The study conducted between 2011 and 2013 considers pre-service teacher programs at five Portuguese universities and the main data sources are surveys and semi-structured interviews, which are supplemented with other documentation. The findings suggest there is some awareness of the international position of English; however, preference for NSs persists in certain areas. Hence, it is proposed that an ELF-aware transformative framework be applied in teaching programs; this way, trainees shall be encouraged to develop a critical stance and a wider worldview of English, employing and sharing these views with their prospective students, both learners and users.

Keywords: English as a lingua franca, English language teaching, Teacher education, Intercultural communicative competence, Transformative learning.

Resumo

Esta tese centra-se no conceito de inglês como língua franca, analisando não só o seu impacto no ensino/aprendizagem da língua, como também na formação de professores em Portugal.

A língua inglesa tem tido um papel de destaque na história mundial até aos nossos dias enquanto língua global, interligando povos distantes que a utilizam em variados domínios como, por exemplo, a academia, os negócios, a diplomacia, o turismo e o desporto. Dada a sua aplicação em áreas tão distintas e dispersas geograficamente, a maioria dos seus falantes já não são os que a possuem como língua materna, mas sim os que a usam como segunda ou até terceira língua, e que, inevitavelmente, transpõem para o inglês as suas experiências e características linguísticas e culturais. Ademais, visto que a maioria das actuais comunidades discursivas são dinâmicas e fluidas, torna-se difícil quer descrever as mudanças a que se tem assistido, quer categorizar as variedades linguísticas predominantes.

Tendo em conta a situação actual, vários têm sido os especialistas que tentam cunhar um nome para esta realidade linguística. Dos vários propostos, o inglês como língua franca – ILF (Gnutzmann 2000, House 1999, Jenkins 2007, Seidlhofer 2001) e o inglês como língua internacional – ILI (Jenkins 2000, Modiano 1999a, Widdowson 1997) são os dois termos que, actualmente, parecem reunir maior consenso entre os investigadores. Ambas as expressões têm em comum o facto de não estarem associadas à existência de uma única variedade a nível mundial, mas sim a um uso neutro do inglês que engloba o conhecimento linguístico e ainda uma consciencialização intercultural que inclui a gestão de várias estratégias comunicativas de acordo com a situação. Assim sendo, ambos os termos serão utilizados ao longo da tese, pois referem-se à mesma realidade.

Cabe ainda notar que um conceito como o ILF/ILI também traz consigo várias consequências. Ao contrário de outras línguas estrangeiras, a aprendizagem do inglês não tem como objectivo comunicar maioritariamente com falantes nativos, mas sim com falantes não-nativos. Neste sentido, uma metodologia de ensino/aprendizagem baseada em normas britânicas/americanas pode não se coadunar com a realidade efectiva, uma vez que a questão do erro e do falante nativo não são aqui decisivos. Assim sendo, propõe-se neste trabalho uma abordagem adicional àquela já em prática, que tenha em consideração esse uso internacional da língua. Apesar de os professores

poderem reconhecer a importância de perceber o inglês desta nova forma, podem, no entanto, não querer alterar a sua abordagem, uma vez que ela põe em causa tudo aquilo que conhecem (Sifakis e Sougari 2005). É necessário, por isso, que os professores estejam devidamente informados sobre o conceito de ILF/ILI e como este pode ser aplicado.

Os mestrados em ensino surgem então como local ideal para fomentar entre os mestrandos uma nova abordagem. Estes cursos não só contribuem para o desenvolvimento intelectual e teórico-crítico nas universidades, como também trabalham a componente prática de ensino nas escolas.

Deste modo, esta tese analisa o caso específico de Portugal, nomeadamente os mestrados em ensino de inglês nas universidades, considerando até que ponto estes promovem o conceito de ILF/ILI. Os primeiros dois capítulos oferecem um enquadramento teórico centrado na expansão da língua inglesa e o seu uso, e ainda nas diferenças entre o inglês como língua estrangeira (ILE) e o ILF/ILI no ensino. Os restantes capítulos focam o estudo desenvolvido, a metodologia usada, os objectivos da investigação, os resultados obtidos e ainda a sua discussão. A tese termina também com uma proposta de aprendizagem transformativa que pode vir a ser posteriormente aplicada nos mestrados.

Tendo em conta cada capítulo individualmente, o primeiro começa por reflectir sobre a expansão da língua inglesa, desde questões históricas até à globalização e os recentes desenvolvimentos tecnológicos. São apresentados vários modelos que descrevem o uso do inglês a nível mundial, tendo sido o dos Círculos concêntricos de Kachru (1985) o escolhido como ponto de partida para a análise desenvolvida. O contexto aqui essencialmente estudado é o do Círculo em expansão, onde o inglês é habitualmente considerado língua estrangeira. Contudo, neste contexto, a língua inglesa tem vindo a assumir um papel preponderante enquanto língua franca, a nível nacional e internacional. Considerando esta realidade, são reavaliados conceitos essenciais como variedade, comunidade, apropriação e inteligibilidade, para proceder depois à reflexão comparativa entre o ILF e o ILE.

O capítulo dois começa por retratar o ensino das línguas estrangeiras em geral, focando os vários métodos e abordagens implementados ao longo do tempo, como reflexo das necessidades da época. Em seguida, debruça-se sobre o ensino do inglês, em particular, reflectindo sobre as diferenças entre uma abordagem de língua estrangeira e uma de língua franca, incluindo a discussão de temas como aprendente

versus utilizador da língua, bem como língua enquanto forma *versus* língua enquanto função, e também aspectos de língua, cultura, identidade e materiais didácticos a adoptar. É ainda explicada a importância de incutir valores como a consciência (inter)cultural e a competência comunicativa intercultural, que promovem conhecimentos e estratégias essenciais para se ser bem sucedido em interacções comunicativas. O capítulo termina com o reconhecimento de que, se o objectivo é fomentar nos professores uma outra maneira de olhar para a língua e o seu ensino, esta provavelmente não será adoptada sem primeiro ser confrontada com uma certa hesitação, pois tudo aquilo que põe em causa o que esses professores sabem, inevitavelmente gera neles um sentimento de medo e insegurança. Tendo isto em conta, os mestrados em ensino são propostos como o local de eleição para que os futuros professores possam, desde logo, confrontar os seus medos e inseguranças quanto ao ensino, sendo-lhes estimulada uma atitude crítica que fará parte de um maior processo transformativo (Sifakis 2007, 2009).

Depois de uma reflexão teórica sobre a língua e o seu ensino, no capítulo três as atenções viram-se para o contexto sociolinguístico da Europa, em geral, e de Portugal, em específico. Começa por analisar-se como o inglês tem vindo a assumir cada vez mais a posição de língua franca com várias funções, não se restringindo apenas ao contexto escolar. Posteriormente, e não menos importante, observa-se o papel preponderante do ensino do inglês na maioria dos países a nível europeu, nomeadamente o impacto que tem, tanto nos alunos, como nos seus pais. É ainda tomado em linha de conta o papel do Quadro Europeu Comum de Referência para as Línguas (2001) e os objectivos aí delineados. Na segunda metade do capítulo é fornecida uma contextualização histórica até aos nossos dias da presença e do ensino do inglês em Portugal. É feita referência a várias reformas essenciais, aos programas curriculares de inglês do ensino obrigatório, e ainda à formação inicial de professores de inglês. É a este último ponto que é dada particular atenção, de modo a estabelecer a ponte com o que é apresentado no capítulo seguinte.

O capítulo quatro centra-se no estudo desenvolvido nos mestrados em ensino em Portugal, analisando a forma como estão estruturados e até que ponto exploram o conceito de ILF. Os objectivos da investigação focam essencialmente o modo como as opiniões dos mestrados mudam, desde o início até ao fim dos seus estudos, em relação ao uso da língua e à sua aprendizagem/leccionação. Visam ainda perceber até que ponto é que a experiência prévia de ensino e a estadia no estrangeiro moldam as

opiniões dos mestrados. Para tal foi aplicado um questionário em dois momentos diferentes do mestrado – no início e no fim – e foram ainda feitas entrevistas a alguns dos participantes.

Os dados quantitativos foram tratados em SPSS e os resultados recolhidos divididos em três áreas: a) a posição dos mestrados em relação ao inglês e ao uso que fazem da língua; b) a opinião dos mestrados quanto àquilo que motiva os seus futuros alunos e a aprendizagem da língua, e c) a visão dos mestrados relativamente às suas funções enquanto professores e ao ensino do inglês em geral (destrezas linguísticas e cultura, por exemplo). Dos resultados obtidos verifica-se que os mestrados estão conscientes da internacionalização do uso da língua. Contudo, no ensino, existem ainda casos em que os mestrados continuam muito ligados à questão do padrão e do falante nativo como modelo preferencial. O capítulo termina assim com a sugestão de que os mestrados devem reavaliar esta questão.

Por fim, o quinto e último capítulo sugere que os mestrados devem explorar uma abordagem transformativa que não só “treina” os seus formandos para serem professores, mas que também os forma para que desenvolvam competências de reflexão crítica e para que sejam autónomos nas suas tomadas de decisão. Baseando-se em Mezirow (1991, 1995, 1998, 2000), Sifakis (2007, 2009, 2014a) apresenta uma abordagem transformativa para o reconhecimento do ILF em cinco fases. Embora a abordagem de Sifakis se destine a professores já em serviço, sugere-se um alargamento de modo a adaptá-la a professores em início de carreira. Assim sendo, cada fase foi analisada individualmente, para que, no final, os participantes consigam chegar à conclusão de que estão devidamente informados sobre a questão de ILF, bem como de outros temas secundários e das suas implicações pedagógicas.

No final, a tese defende que com a devida formação, os mestrados conseguem medir e avaliar a sua situação em sala de aula, de modo a poderem tomar uma decisão informada sobre ILF enquanto opção adicional no seu contexto educativo.

Palavras chave: Inglês como língua franca, Ensino da língua inglesa, Formação de professores, Competência intercultural comunicativa, Aprendizagem transformativa.

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List of Abbreviations

ACE	Asian Corpus of English
AmE	American English
BrE	British English
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
EIL	English as an International Language
ELF	English as a Lingua Franca
ELFA	English as a Lingua Franca in Academic Settings
ELT	English Language Teaching
ENL	English as a Native Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
ESOL	English Speaker of Other Language
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
EU	European Union
ICC	Intercultural Communicative Competence
L1	First Language Speakers
L2	Second Language Speakers
NEST	Native English Speaking Teacher
NNEST	Non-native English Speaking Teacher
NS	Native Speaker
NNS	Non-native Speaker
UC	University of Coimbra
UK	United Kingdom
UL	University of Lisbon
UM	University of Minho
UNL	New University of Lisbon
UP	University of Porto
US(A)	United States of America
VOICE	Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English
WE	World Englishes
Y1	First-year trainees/ First year of the teaching program (in data analysis)
Y2	Second-year trainees/ Second year of the teaching program (in data analysis)

Introduction

English has occupied a unique place not only throughout history but also in today's interconnected world. In fact, there has never been a language so extensively used and so firmly established as the dominant global language in such numerous and disparate fields of activity like academia, advertising, business and banking, industry and commerce, international diplomacy, pop music, tourism, transportation and sports, to name a few.

Given the extensive spread of the language throughout a wide number of domains, as well as geographically speaking, it has become clear that users of English no longer include just monolingual native speakers (NSs), but increasingly more bilinguals or multilinguals, for whom English is a second or even third language, and who unavoidably bring to it many diverse linguistic and cultural influences. These considerable demographic changes in terms of English language users have inevitably contributed to the rise of different variations of English, distinguished in terms of discoursal, lexical, phonological and syntactic elements.

Bearing this in mind, English varieties can no longer be categorized just according to L1 or even L2 varieties, especially since many speech communities nowadays are characterized for their dynamic, fluid and mutable nature. As a result of the predominant role English has assumed, several have been the researchers who have tried to coin a term considering the relevant aspects of the use of English in diverse settings. Some examples include, World Standard (Spoken) English (McArthur 1987), General English (Ahulu 1997), English as a global language (Crystal 2003 [1997]), English as an International Language (Jenkins 2000, Modiano 1999a, Widdowson 1997), English as a Lingua Franca (Gnutzmann 2000, House 1999, Jenkins 2007, Seidlhofer 2001), or World English (Brutt-Griffler 2002), to mention some of the most relevant.

Of these terms, most contemporary scholars reflecting on English and English language use have reached a general consensus on English as an International Language (EIL) or English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), which can be observed in recent publications in the field of Applied Linguistics. The reason for this lies on the fact that contrary to other terminology, these two terms have not been associated with the emergence of one single global linguistic variety labeled as EIL or ELF; quite the

opposite, from an EIL or ELF standpoint, the emergence of a single international variety is not compatible with how language is effectively being used in reality. Moreover, these two concepts obviously comprise linguistic knowledge itself, but they have also expanded to incorporate aspects like intercultural awareness and effective use of communicative strategies. As a result, it can be argued that these notions have been adopted to refer to the diverse roles English plays in several contexts, along with its diverse users, who play an important part in the shaping and progress of the language. Considering these factors, both EIL and ELF will be used interchangeably throughout this dissertation.

Reflecting on EIL/ELF use, however, does not go without considering its consequences. When taking into consideration a global language like English, there are several issues that need to be taken into account when learning it as an additional language. Unlike other foreign languages, the outcome of learning English in the majority of the cases will most likely be to communicate with other non-native speakers (NNS) rather than with NSs, though these are not excluded.

Bearing this in mind, a traditional norm-based approach centered solely on British or American English does not necessarily imply effective language learning and use, as individuals bring into English characteristics based on their mother tongue and background knowledge. From a conventional English as a Foreign Language (EFL) standpoint, all that strays from standard language is normally deemed as an error; hence, the need to acquire linguistic and cultural knowledge as similar as possible to the NS, the ideal language user. Nevertheless, it remains to be known, who is this ideal English user a learner should try to attain? In addition, if teachers are to assess learners' similarities with NSs, will they not simply be viewed as outsiders, or even as puppets, trying to imitate how others speak? From this viewpoint, learners never actually gain "access" to the language, so as to use it freely like their mother tongue.

Considering these issues, an ELF perspective aims at taking a step forward, so as to acknowledge English as part of its learners – they too may claim ownership over the language. In this sense, instead of learning the language to subsequently use it, the processes of learning and using the language are considered as simultaneous. Moreover, from a methodological perspective, it is also open to integrating a multi-norm and multi-method approach, in which linguistic diversity is accepted and recognized. Furthermore, the aim of such an outlook is not to emerge as an alternative

approach seeking to replace the already existing pedagogy, but instead as an additional option for ELT teachers and learners to make an informed decision on what is best for their specific context (Jenkins *et al.* 2011).

The question that remains, however, is: to what extent are practicing teachers, pre-service teacher trainees, and for that matter, teacher trainers familiar with these concepts? If ELF is to arise as an additional option within the classroom, it is crucial that language educators and teacher trainers fully understand what the concept entails, in order to make or transmit how to make informed decisions. Unfortunately though, pre-service and in-service teacher development continue to mainly promote a monolithic approach to language that understands competence according to the command of standard native-speaker linguistic forms, hence contradicting the sociolinguistic reality of most contexts where English is learned, taught and used.

It is with this in mind that, after much descriptive analysis studies in ELF, that research has relatively recently turned to ELT. The aim of researchers is to make studies available and comprehensible to (future) ELT teachers so that they may reassess their convictions and methods, so as to decide on the impact of ELF in their own situation. Nevertheless, although language practitioners may grasp the demand for intelligibility in communication among NNSs, they may, in the meanwhile, deny making any changes regarding their own teaching practices (Sifakis and Sougari 2005). The fact is that teachers' views on ELT pedagogy are influenced and molded by many circumstances (Widdowson 2002), such as their own learning and teaching experiences, local cultures, experiences abroad, learners' needs or their own beliefs in what concerns their function as "guardians" of Standard English, to name just a few.

It is taking all these issues into consideration that I sought out to analyze the situation in Portugal, more particularly how teacher trainees view English language use and ELT. In general, there has been a gap in studies concentrating on the situation of (pre-service) teacher education programs, even though many studies have already been carried out on the attitudes of students and teachers at university. In the specific case of Portugal, there have already been several sociolinguistic studies on university students' and teachers' attitudes towards English and English language use. Some of these studies include (in alphabetical order):

- Cavalheiro (2008): An MA thesis that seeks to explore the attitudes of undergraduate university students and of English language teachers at the

Faculty of Letters of the University of Lisbon regarding English language use and ELT from an ELF perspective (see also Azuaga and Cavaleiro 2011);

- Gomes (2008): An MA thesis that explores the use of English borrowings in the native oral discourse of Portuguese university students, so as to evaluate their openness to globalization with English as a means for them to achieve effective communication at both a global and local level (participating schools: University of Aveiro, University of Évora and University of Porto);
- Guerra (2005): A PhD dissertation that begins by concentrating on EIL related issues in the current basic and secondary education national policies and how ELT materials have construed the national guidelines, and afterwards, an analysis of teachers and students' (of which a low percentage consists of teacher trainees) views on EIL related issues (participating schools: University of Évora, University of Lisbon, the School of Tourism and Hotel Management of Estoril and the Polytechnic Institute of Beja);
- Leslie (2009): An MA thesis focusing firstly on the spread of English in Portugal by analyzing the frequency with which English loanwords are used in two newspapers (1989–2009) and secondly, how English may spread in the future by evaluating undergraduate university students' contact with and attitudes towards English (participating schools: New University of Lisbon, the Polytechnic Institute of Santarém, Lusófona University and the Higher Institute of Administration and Languages);
- Pereira (forthcoming): A PhD thesis centered on the assessment of English language competency among incoming students at ESTG from the Polytechnic Institute of Leiria and how it can be seen in light of an ELF perspective.

The reason for my choosing to concentrate on the particular situation of teacher trainees and teacher education programs is twofold. Firstly, to date there has been no widespread study in Portugal that has concentrated on this specific area of studies. As it was observed, there have been several cases that focus on the attitudes of undergraduate students and teachers from universities, in which there is even one, Guerra's study (2005), which contains a small group of teacher trainees. However, there are two aspects that need to be kept in mind in Guerra's study: 1) it was carried out before the reformulations implemented by the Bologna process and 2) its main

intention is not to focus only on this specific setting, but on the broader university panorama.

The second reason for deciding on teacher education programs is due to the way they combine both academic viewpoints and practical teaching experience. This seems like the ideal setting to promote dialog among trainees, cooperating teachers and university professors on a number of issues, such as: language syllabus, teaching materials, approaches and methods, language assessment and one's own knowledge base (Jenkins *et al.* 2011); all of which have far reaching implications in language teacher education. If ELF is to emerge as an additional option within classrooms, this is the perfect place to promote critical reflection and discussion on the issue.

Bearing this in mind, this research aims to observe how teacher trainees perceive English and ELT, and to what extent their opinions are influenced by their own teaching experience and time spent abroad. Moreover, this study also intends to analyze the role teacher education programs play in changing trainees' opinions from the beginning to the end of their studies, so as to understand whether they are more influenced by a norm-based EFL point of view or by an ELF outlook in what concerns both the linguistic and cultural components of ELT. Linguistically speaking, different English varieties, issues on native speakerness and non-native speakerness, the four language skills, and the notions of communicability and intelligibility are taken into account; in addition, culture wise, Big-C culture and more importantly, intercultural awareness and intercultural communicative competence are considered as well.

These aims can be formulated into two main research questions and further sub-questions, as presented below:

1. Do pre-service teacher education programs have an effect on the attitudes of teacher trainees in terms of language and teaching? In other words, is there a difference in trainees' attitudes when comparing them at the beginning and then at the end of their studies?
2. To what extent are pre-service teachers' opinions on ELT influenced by their time spent abroad and language teaching experience? With these two notions in mind, up to what point do they also affect the following more specific issues:
 - What motivational factors do they believe guide students' current English language use and do these opinions go in line with their practices?

- Do trainees demonstrate a linguistically and culturally attached outlook toward the two main English-speaking communities (British and American), or is their position more internationally focused and ideologically neutral?
- How do they view native speakerness and non-native speakerness in what concerns language aims and their role as ELT teachers?

It is hoped that by presenting responses to these research questions, this dissertation may contribute to a better understanding of how ELF is perceived by trainees and in what areas such an approach can be fomented in teacher education programs. Moreover, expanding on the notion of ELF aims to broaden our perception of the knowledge and skills necessary to engage in effective intercultural communication; hence, going beyond the issue of just teaching/learning grammar and vocabulary.

Taking a look at the structure of this dissertation, the first two chapters are predominantly concerned with reviewing the relevant literature and research on the spread of English and its use, as well as on ELT and the differences between an EFL and ELF outlook. As for the following chapters, they turn to the context of the study itself, describing the chosen research methodology, the results of the study, the discussion of the findings and the proposal for implementing change in teacher programs.

Looking more specifically at each chapter, chapter one begins with a discussion on the spread of English – how it has gone from a local national language to today’s most widely used lingua franca in international scenarios, especially due to geographical-historical aspects, and more recently because of technology and globalization. In order to understand the diverse roles English has taken on in our global community, several models are referred to as possible explanations to describe this reality within one conceptual set. Those developed on include Kachru’s “Concentric circle model” (1985), McArthur’s “Circle of World English” (1987) and Modiano’s “Centripetal circles of International English” (1999b). Of the three presented, Kachru’s model is the one chosen as the point of departure for my approach, as it is a useful starting point and representation for understanding the types of spread, the patterns of acquisition and the functional allocation of English in different cultural contexts. Moreover, since the basis of this dissertation is learning

contexts and not individual learners, Kachru's model seems to be the one which is better situated, although not without its issues, as it will be explained.

The chapter will then focus on how, in Expanding circle contexts, English has gone from mainly having an EFL function to taking on the role of an international language. However, in order to better grasp the differences between these two concepts, there are several fundamental notions that are first reconceptualized considering the changes verified in English language use, of which are included the views on variety, community, ownership and intelligibility. These issues are not only essential, but also necessary to reflect on, as EFL is part of the Modern Foreign Languages paradigm, as opposed to ELF, which belongs to the World Englishes paradigm. The reflection on ELF will also be accompanied with references to several studies that have been conducted in terms of lexicogrammar, phonology and pragmatics, so as to better understand how communication can function effectively when in varied linguistic scenarios with interlocutors from diverse backgrounds.

Chapter two opens with a reflection on foreign language teaching in general that afterwards gives way to a discussion on ELT, in which the differences between an EFL and an ELF outlook will be considered. The chapter therefore begins with a brief historical overview of the several methods and approaches to foreign language teaching, especially since these have gone through different periods due to the variations in the type of proficiency skills learners require, and the changes in theories of the nature of language and language learning/teaching (Richards and Rogers 2001).

The chapter focuses then on the specific situation of ELT, and how it has developed and changed, by centering its attention on the standards and objectives that have been continuously readjusted. In addition, it is also argued how the field of Applied Linguistics has played an important role in fomenting discussion on the emergence of new and different perspectives.

The chapter moves on to question and reflect on the EFL and ELF paradigms, by taking into account different views like that of language learner vs. language user, and language as form vs. language as function. Important issues such as language, culture, identity and teaching materials are also contemplated when comparing and contrasting the two paradigms. Furthermore, the notions of (inter)cultural awareness and intercultural communicative competence are likewise examined, especially regarding the different skills and strategies that can be employed to achieve effective communication when in diverse contexts.

Chapter two finally concludes with how change can be brought to ELT. It first refers to the resistance manifested by teachers when they are initially challenged with alternative language teaching approaches, and only afterwards does it suggest teacher education programs as the key element for the implementation of new attitudes and approaches to ELT. Not only can these programs help trainees adopt a more critical stance, but they can also contribute to overcoming their fears and insecurities. However, for this to be achieved, it is suggested that teacher programs need to be well structured and prepared to stimulate in trainees critical reflection, so that they can embark on a transformative process with a long-lasting impact, as proposed by Sifakis (2007, 2009).

Chapter three will bridge the previous two chapters with the following section of this dissertation. After a descriptive analysis of the general Expanding circle context, the specific case of continental Europe is analyzed, especially attending to how English has gone from being predominantly a foreign language to the most commonly shared idiom in multiple intra- and international domains; hence creating a distinctive sociolinguistic situation in Europe, in which different specificities of English use are observed. This is followed by an account of the pervasiveness of ELT in Europe, with specific emphasis on most recent years. In addition, the *Common European Framework of Reference* (Council of Europe 2001) is also here briefly reexamined in light of the current use of the English language as well as the needs of ELT.

The second half of chapter three begins with a brief historical description and reflection on the presence of English in Portugal, subsequently followed by a discussion on the Portuguese educational system, giving particular attention to important foreign language teaching and ELT reforms. Emphasis is particularly placed to the current linguistic scenario of English language use, as well as to the several EFL curricular programs available in the several “ciclos”.

The chapter ends by taking into consideration the pre-service teacher education MA programs with an English component (“Mestrados em Ensino”). A description of the structure and aims of these courses is given in view of the changes applied with implementation of the Bologna Process.

Chapter four focuses on the study conducted in this dissertation – an analysis of how, in Portugal, pre-service teacher education programs with an English component are structured, and to what extent they foment with their trainees an ELF

outlook as an additional approach to ELT. The main research questions are therefore presented, focusing namely on the impact the programs have on trainees' opinions when comparing them at the beginning and at the end of their studies, and to what point does prior teaching experience and time spent abroad influence how they view English language use and ELT. This is followed by a description of the context of the study as well as of its participants, along with a rationale for their selection. Afterwards the quantitative and qualitative research instruments used (questionnaires and semi-structured interviews) are explained and reasons for their selection are provided as well. The procedures of how the data is analyzed are also given, stressing the importance of both a quantitative approach and a qualitative approach, as each explore specific matters.

Subsequently, the collected data is analyzed, and the results are presented and discussed, bearing in mind the research aims that can be sub-divided into three main areas: a) trainees' attitudes toward English and their own language use, b) trainees' attitudes about students' motivations and language learning, and c) trainees' attitudes toward their role as teachers and ELT in general. In other words, attention is placed on trainees' own backgrounds in terms of language and language use, then on what they believe motivates students to learn the language and finally, on how they view their own position in language teaching, especially regarding areas such as reading and listening skills, written and spoken production, as well as culture and (inter)cultural awareness.

Chapter four closes by suggesting that, with the current ELT scenario mapped out and the conclusions drawn from the study, a new proposal for teacher education courses can be developed, so as to promote a more ELF-aware perspective that can meet students half way in terms of their needs and struggles, as well as prepare them for today's current use of English.

Lastly, chapter five addresses ELT teacher education in specific and how an ELF approach may be implemented into language teaching programs. In addition to the feedback received from the questionnaires, the chapter begins by further analyzing to what extent ELF is explored in teacher education degrees in Portugal and the impact that it has, namely through published documentation and the responses received during the interviews. Respondents do in fact show some openness and awareness in what concerns the international use of the language; however, their attitudes also continue restrained to a standard point of view. Taking this into account,

it is suggested that more attention should be given to teacher development rather than to teacher training, especially as it has a greater effect on language educators, contributing to their understanding of teaching and of their role as teachers.

Seeing as the aim of the study is for trainees to become not only critical instructors, but also transformative intellectuals (Guilherme 2002), it is considered that a more transformative outlook in teacher education programs is necessary. Mezirow's transformative learning perspective (1991, 1995, 1998, 2000) is presented as an essential model, contributing to changing adult learners' "meaning perspectives", by promoting a type of reflection that can eventually lead to autonomy, self-learning, and most importantly, to the empowerment of the individual.

Based on Mezirow's approach, the five stage ELF-aware transformative framework proposed by Sifakis (2007, 2009) is explored as a realistic and practical model that, in addition to in-service teacher programs, can likewise be applied in pre-service teacher education programs. In view of this, each of the five stages is separately considered and further expanded on where deemed relevant. The aim is to grasp the essential aspects that should be developed, so that participants can become fully aware of what is involved in the ELF debate, in other essential secondary issues and its several pedagogical implications. Ultimately, it is argued that a transformative framework can help future ELT teachers in making decisions on whether ELF may be applied as an additional approach to their specific teaching contexts.

Chapter 1

English as a Lingua Franca: A historical perspective

“The new language which is rapidly ousting the language of Shakespeare as the world’s lingua franca is English itself – English in its new global form.”
(Graddol 2006: 11)

1.1. Introduction

This chapter attempts to contextualize the present study by examining the dissemination and use of English as an international language. In keeping with the interests of this research, emphasis is first placed on the historical proliferation of the language, from national language to lingua franca of the world. The discussion begins with a general characterization of the spread of English and some of the models depicting this reality, namely Kachru (1985), McArthur (1987) and Modiano (1999b). For the case of this study though, Kachru’s Concentric circle model is held as the chosen model to reflect on language use and language teaching.

Next, concepts like *variety*, *community*, *ownership* and *intelligibility* are re-evaluated in light of the current linguistic and sociocultural scenario, so as to reflect on the notions of EFL and ELF, and how they differ. Particular attention is given to ELF, not only as a research paradigm, but also as function (in opposition to form). Reference is also made to various studies at a lexicogrammatical, pragmatic and phonological level, sustaining that the nonconformity to standards does not inevitably signify a breakdown in communication. Quite the contrary, research has proven that interlocutors develop better accommodation skills and communicative strategies, which helps promote solidarity with others and project their own cultural identity.

1.2. From local to global

The English language has firmly established its position as the main leading international language in countless domains of use in the twenty-first century; to

completely realize this remarkable fact of our times, we must try to fully understand why English is the global language, and not some other idiom. According to Crystal (2003), the answer to this issue lies on two assumptions, one that is based on geographical-historical factors and the other, on socio-cultural aspects. In the first case, we are able to identify *how* English achieved such a pre-eminent role; while in the second case, we recognize *why* it continues to take on such functions. It is the combination of both features that has essentially contributed to the emergence of a global language with many different varieties, and along with them, several implications.

Similarly, facing the same aspects and trying to provide a deeper understanding of this linguistic reality, Dendrinos *et al.* (2008) also discuss the weight of the historical, structural and social circumstances in the proliferation and maintenance of a language. In addition, they not only assess the symbolic value associated with it and its users, but also the support it has received to grow and develop into the current lingua franca, all of which are further expanded on in this chapter.

What a language is or is not depends on the historical and structural conditions for its maintenance and use, on the social conditions of its institutionalization, on the symbolic value attached to it and to its users, and the support mechanisms available for its development, enrichment and promotion.

(Dendrinos *et al.* 2008: 1)

From a geographical-historical perspective, it is during the Modern English period that the spread of the language began to take off with the exploration and colonization of the British Empire (from *circa* 1500 onwards), hence consolidating the position of English in the world by creating “a language on which the sun never sets” (Graddol 1997: 6). This period of expansion and settlement led, however, to what historians distinguish as the history of Englishes. On the one hand, there were the “colonies of settlement”, while on the other, there were the “colonies of exploitation”, both of which contributing to two different realities of language use and development (Mesthrie and Bhatt 2008). In the former case, countries such as Australia, Canada, New Zealand and the United States of America (US) are included; these are nations where English became the native tongue of its inhabitants and where it is now used on

a daily basis in everyday domains, two factors which contributed to the establishment of recognized varieties. The latter group, “colonies of exploitation”, comprises several different African and Asian countries (e.g. India, Hong Kong, Nigeria, and Zimbabwe, to name a few) where English is mostly used only in official domains (e.g., education and government) and where it has traditionally taken on the role of a second language (L2).

Both realities have indeed played a key role in the increase of the number of English language users; however, in the last century, there has been a major shift in the center of gravity of the language, especially in L2 contexts, as well as in other settings, where English has traditionally been spoken as a foreign language.

From a time in which the majority of English users were thought to be first-language (L1) speakers, our current reality bears witness to a situation in which English speakers of other languages far outnumber those who use it as their L1. This is clearly visible in Crystal (2003), in which the number of L1 speakers is estimated between 320 and 380 million, while the number of English speakers of other languages varies between 100 and 1000 million users¹.

Table 1.1. Estimate of English speaker numbers (Crystal 2003)

L1	320 - 380 million
L2	150 - 300 million
EFL	100 - 1000 million

The elevated number of English language speakers here presented clearly indicates how English has become deeply embedded in different societies worldwide. From a socio-cultural point of view, the rise of the English language in such diverse areas of use is essentially due to the cultural legacies of the colonial era, as well as to the technological revolution and globalization process that have been felt at several levels, being the latter two particularly vital for English becoming a medium of communication in growth areas, and shaping our daily lives in the twenty and twenty-first century.

¹ Although twelve years have gone by since these numbers have been published, the panorama seems to continue the same, as the number of speakers of English continues to increase.

1.2.1. Taking on the information highway in today's global village

The value that has been ascribed to the English language by millions of people internationally, is mainly due to the importance many attribute to it and to “the convenience of having a lingua franca available to serve global human relations and needs,” as Crystal (2003: 30) argues. It is this notion of value that has played an essential role in the dissemination of English, especially from the second half of the twentieth century onwards.

The political and military power first held by the United Kingdom (UK) and afterwards by the US, in particular after the Second World War, contributed to the increase in the numbers of English speakers worldwide; however, it was with the globalization process, especially with the rise of the “information highway” and the revolution in communication, that English language use greatly proliferated in a variety of essential international domains. The American mass media industry in particular (e.g. television, cinema and the press) may have contributed to the dissemination of a set of cultural values praised by others, but it is the growth of international contacts (as a result of the technology of modern communication and of air transportation) that has played an essential role in the value ascribed to English language use today. In a considerably short period of time, our present day society has become more mobile, not only physically, but also electronically, hence contributing to change at several levels. Nowadays, we are able to easily communicate with our contacts via the Internet by email, chat or Skype in a matter of seconds, and if necessary, catching a plane to travel from one continent to another in a matter of hours has become a common ritual in such demanding fields, as academia, business, politics or sports.

Bearing this in mind, the participants engaged in a globalization network are, “marked by difference and inequality and are therefore constantly (re)negotiating roles, relationships and interdependence” (Omoniyi and Saxena 2010: 2). In this sense, globalization is here understood as a social construct, as a universal network of exchange based on relationships of inter-reliance. As Omoniyi and Saxena (2010) go on to mention, as a social process it is important to research how the forms, statuses and functions of English are negotiated around the world so as to also understand the roles it plays in the globalization process.

In addition to using our mother tongue at a national level, the idea of sharing a common language for several international (and even intranational) roles contributes to the notion of a “global village”. Gimenez (2001), for instance, maintains a positive outlook regarding the concepts of English and community:

Having a common language helps us to see ourselves as human beings who live on the same planet, and to that extent can be said to form one community. The value of knowing English lies not only in the ability to access material things, but also in the possibility it offers for creating acceptance of, and respect for, the World’s diversity. English allows us to advance toward global exchange and solidarity among the institutions of civil society, extending bonds between citizens far and wide across the globe. For this reason, considering English as an international language can also bring a sense of possibility in terms of strengthening what might be called ‘planetary citizenship’.

(Gimenez 2001: 297)

Gimenez therefore argues that sharing English as a mutual language may play a key part in creating a sense of community, in which acceptance, respect and solidarity are essential values to achieve. Furthermore, she also goes on to refer to the idea of English as an international language as central for perceiving a “planetary citizenship”. Although this last argument may be controversial at several levels, due to the complexity of concepts like identity and nation, it is true, however, that people (especially in L2 and foreign language settings) have attributed great value to knowing English as an instrumental tool for communication.

1.3. Models of the spread of English

In order to understand the diverse roles English has taken on in today’s global society, several models have emerged as possible explanations to characterize this reality within one conceptual set. One of the first models to be published on the spread of English is Strevens’ “World map of English” (1980), followed afterwards by Kachru’s “Concentric circle model” (1985), McArthur’s “Circle of World English” (1987) and Görlach’s “Circle model of English” (1988). Over a decade later, yet another new model was also put forth, Modiano’s “Centripetal circles of International English” (1999b). Of the several proposals mentioned, three will be here reviewed

more in depth due to their uniqueness and diversity: Kachru (1985), McArthur (1987) and Modiano (1999b).

▪ ***Kachru (1985)***

Kachru (1985) presented a seminal model of English use contexts, in which he states that the spread of English could, “be viewed in terms of three concentric circles representing the types of spread, the patterns of acquisition and the functional domains in which English is used across cultures and languages” (12). These circles include the Inner circle, the Outer circle and the Expanding circle (Figure 1.1.).

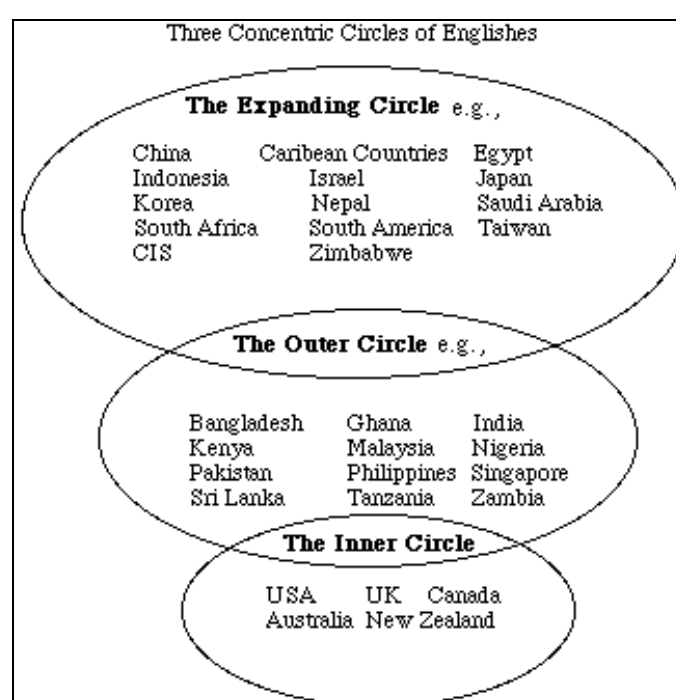


Figure 1.1. Concentric circle model (Kachru 1985)

The Inner circle is associated with countries where English is the primary language of use (e.g. UK, US, Australia, Canada) and since ENL (English as a Native Language) speakers traditionally determine the standards, the varieties in these communities are contemplated as “norm-providing”. The Outer circle, on the other hand, includes multilingual countries where English functions as an L2 (e.g. India, Nigeria, Singapore), and its varieties are deemed as “norm-developing”; in other words, varieties that have become institutionalized and are developing their own standards. Finally, the Expanding circle comprises countries where English is studied as a foreign language (e.g. Portugal, Brazil, Korea). Contrary to the other circles, the

English spoken in this outer layer is “norm dependent”, as the different varieties of English spoken in these communities are believed to be “performance” varieties without official status, and are dependent on the standards set by NSs of the Inner circle.

Kachru’s Concentric circle model has played a central part in scholars understanding the sociolinguistic reality of the spread of English, however, despite its influence, researchers specializing in World Englishes (WE) and ELF have recognized some limitations with the model in its current form.

Seidlhofer (2002), for instance, argues that Kachru’s model refers to how language actually functions socially and communicatively in each of the circles. In the first case, she states that while the terms “Inner” and “Outer” are non-dynamic and straightforwardly designate the speaker as either “belonging” or “being excluded”; the term “Expanding” is progressive (as indicated by the verb form), which necessarily makes it dynamic. It is ironic, though, how the dynamism of the Expanding circle is usually disregarded, as English speakers in Expanding circle countries tend to follow NS norms. However, if language functions are considered, it is clear that English is currently expanding in all three circles as a consequence of innovative uses in new (and expanding) domains. As a result, all circles are continuously adding on novel lexicon and therefore actively contributing to the expansion of the language.

Given that the main drawbacks with the model are principally due to the effective changes in English language use at a global level (which can no longer be based on history or geography), and to how English use and users are compartmentalized into three categories (instead of how users currently identify with and use English), Jenkins (2003) argues that some of the main concerns that have been put forth include how:

- The influx of immigrants in Inner circle countries has led to an increase in multilingualism, in spite of some immigrants eventually only using English for limited purposes;
- In some Outer circle communities, English may be an L1 for many people, rather than a language merely used for official purposes;

- Some countries traditionally deemed as part of the Expanding circle (e.g. Belgium, Costa Rica, Surinam, The Netherlands, The United Arab Emirates) are transitioning towards English achieving an ESL status²;
- Some speakers are brought up in bilingual/multilingual settings, hence using different languages on a daily basis for different functions. Considering this, it is complicated to denote which language is their L1, L2 or L3, for instance³;
- It is difficult to define speakers regarding proficiency, as competence cannot be measured solely in terms of native-speakerism. For instance, a NS may have a limited vocabulary range and little grammatical competence, while a NNS may have developed more competence in such areas.

▪ **McArthur (1987)**

Two years after Kachru's model, Tom McArthur presented his Circle of World English (Figure 1.2.) in an issue of *English Today* (1987). At the core of the model, McArthur conceives an idealized variety denominated as "World Standard English" (which still continues to not exist in an identifiable form), and surrounding it is included regional institutionalized standards (e.g. Standard British and American English) as well as emerging standards (e.g. a variety of Asian and African Englishes). Finally, the outer layer of the model consists of localized varieties that encompass some connection with the regional and emerging standards presented in the previous circle.

Although well organized, McArthur's model presents some issues that need to be contemplated, namely in the second circle of the model, in which three diverse types of English language use are combined: English as a Native Language, English as a Second Language and English as a Foreign Language. The main drawback here is held with how these three forms are put on par, when some are clearly "crystalized forms" of English (e.g. Standard British and American English) and others "standardizing" forms (e.g. African and Asian Englishes). From an EFL perspective, reference is made to several geographical points; however, no indication is made to the multitude of Englishes being used in the European context (Cenoz and Jessner

² For more information on this issue see Graddol (1997).

³ Multilingual speakers are known for having a well-developed metalinguistic awareness, which, according to Mackenzie (2014: 29), "gives them crosslingual receptive strategies for inferring word meanings, and a variety of compensatory strategies when faced with productive difficulties, including activating cognates, borrowing, transferring, switching, calquing, approximating, coining words, and generally experimenting with language."

2000), for instance. Furthermore, McArthur also incorporates into the outer layer of the model pidgins, creoles and L2 Englishes, which do not unambiguously belong to one family.

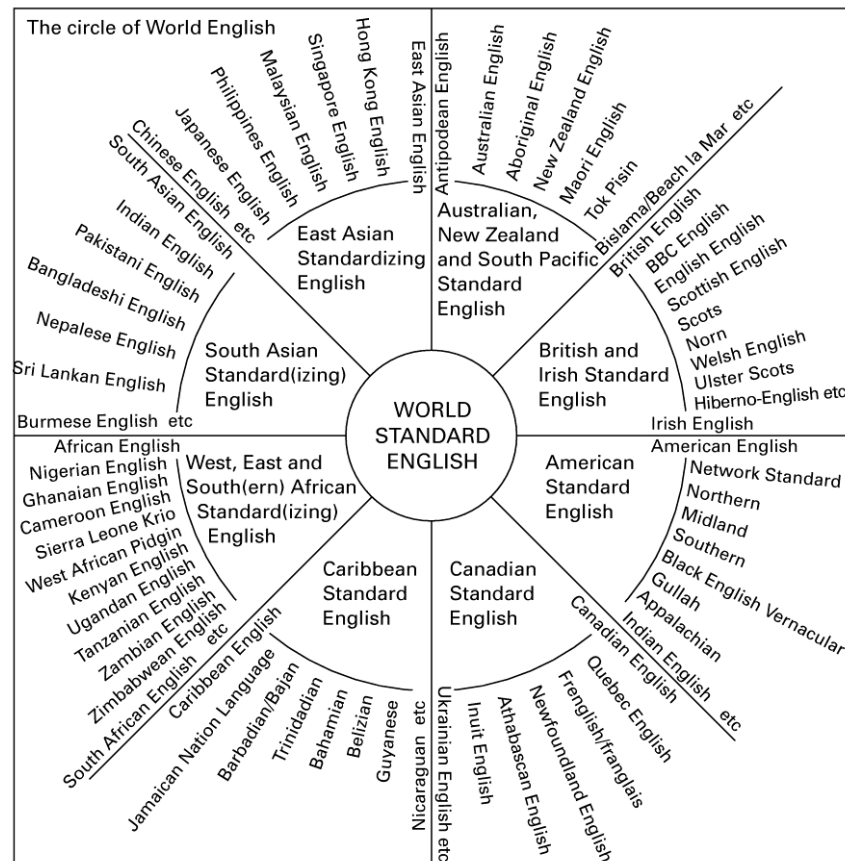


Figure 1.2. Circle of World English (McArthur 1987)

▪ **Modiano (1999b)**

A more recent attempt to describe the spread of English is Modiano's proposed model dating from 1999, in which he breaks away from the geographical and historical points involved in the previous two models. He begins by designing a model, The centripetal circles of International English, where at the center is located those who are proficient in international English (be they NSs or NNSs). Afterwards, he places those who have native and foreign language proficiency, and in the third circle, can found learners of English. Outside the circles there is yet another band representing all those who do not know the language.

After several reactions to his first model, that same year it was redrafted and

Modiano presented a new model based on aspects common to all varieties of English (Figure 1.3.). At the center can be found EIL, that is, a core of features that are understandable by the majority of competent English speakers, both NSs and NNSs included. The second circle consists of a common core shared at an international level, and finally, the outer circle, compromises five different groups – American English, British English, major varieties, other varieties and foreign language speakers. In this case, each group contains features specific to their own speech community and that are likely incomprehensible by the majority of the members of the other groups.

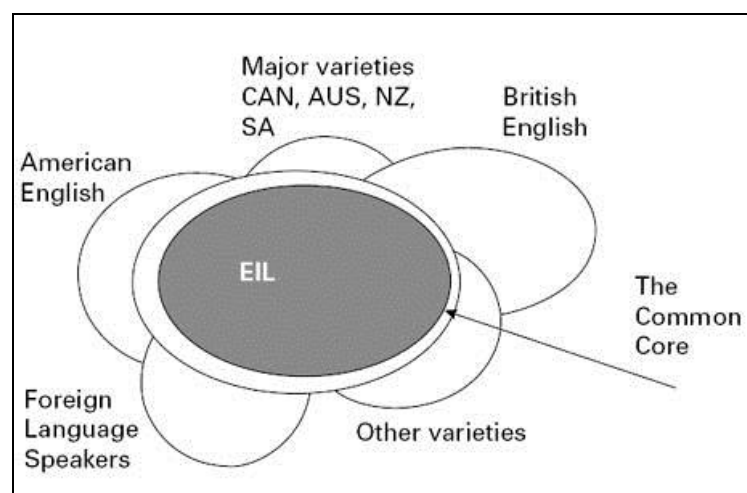


Figure 1.3. Concentric circle model (Modiano 1999b)

Despite Modiano's second attempt, several issues continue to persist with the model proposed, namely the difficulty in recognizing what fits into the central category, and the fact that NSs are put on par with "competent" NNSs, which is not necessarily true, since not all NSs are competent users of the language.

Establishing models regarding the spread of English has been a time-honored approach in the areas of WE and ELF; however, these do not come without problems. Of the three models here analyzed more in depth, I have chosen to use Kachru's seminal model as a point of departure for my approach in this dissertation. Despite it having been one of the first models to be presented (1985), dividing English speakers into three groups is a useful starting point for comprehending the pattern of English at a global level. Furthermore, since the basis of this thesis are learning contexts and not

individual learners, Kachru's model seems to be the one better situated, despite some issues, as it has been put forth.

1.4. From foreign language to lingua franca

As a cause and consequence of globalization, English is currently perceived as the most pervasive means of international and intercultural communication. The world has become so interconnected with English as its most common language that, in most cases, emphasis on categorizing language into traditional varieties no longer seems to reflect the current use of the language (Jenkins *et al.* 2011), especially when considering its contingent, flexible, fluid, hybrid, and intercultural nature (Dewey 2007).

Taking into account the current role of English, for most academic researchers focusing on ELF, the concepts of EFL and ELF are two distinct phenomena that need to be distinguished. In addition to these concepts, and also inevitably associated with them, the notions of language variety, community, language ownership and intelligibility across cultures also need to be called upon, as they have widely contributed to the discussion in the change in English language use. Before taking on a more in depth analysis of EFL and ELF, it is necessary to begin by reflecting on these latter notions.

1.4.1. Defining key concepts

- ***Variety***

A variety, as presented in Seidlhofer (2011b), is a social construct that exists in and through the perception of language users. However, this perception is usually associated with a traditional point of view, in which both languages and varieties are perceived as bounded entities, where there is a close link between language/variety and a geographically defined speech community. A variety is therefore generally regarded as a formal set of features, of which one specific set of features is privileged as the standard model, holding with it a certain prestige.

In the specific case of English, for instance, throughout a great part of the twentieth century, it was believed that there was only one variety of Standard English

(or two at most), in great part due to a traditional language ideology in academia, as Bolton (2006) argues:

Throughout the twentieth century, the notion that there was only one variety of “Standard English” (or arguably two) was supported by a standard language ideology associated with traditional approaches to the history of English and an undeconstructed view of English studies in the academy as scholarship on a national language and literary tradition.

(Bolton 2006: 304)

These constructs of language and variety were created to bring a certain amount of stability to language use and language learning; nevertheless, it cannot be forgotten that language is not fixed, but constantly in flux, always variable in time and space.

Bearing this in mind, it may then be suggested that the notion of language varieties are “fictions” in the sense that they are “ordered abstractions” from “insuppressible” linguistic change, as Algeo (1991) claims. Algeo goes on to dispute that in order to “describe, to explain, and to predict requires that we suppose there are stable things behind our discourse” (Algeo 1991: 4), which may not be the case in all language use. Nowadays, we recognize that the forms of a language reflect the functions it is designed to fulfill; in other words, in order to communicate effectively, users exploit the resources of the language to achieve their aims. These processes of innovation, visible at various levels (e.g. pragmatics), allow users to take advantage of and explore the meaning potential of a language as a communicative source, and realize the significance of the forms they use (Seidlhofer 2011b). In the specific case of English, for example, due to its large number of users, the language has acquired an extended functional *range* in a variety of administrative, educational, social and literary domains, as well as a great *depth* in terms of users at different levels of society, both of which have contributed to significant variation (Bolton 2006).

▪ *Community*

The radical changes in today’s technology-driven society have not only contributed to shift the way varieties are deemed, but also to what constitutes the concept of community. Traditionally, the word community has been linked with physical proximity and along with it, the idea of social cohesion, whereby a person develops a sense of belonging to a specific group, and is socialized into its values and its beliefs.

From an ethnographic point of view, the notion of community is defined by Hymes (1962: 30) as, “a local unit, characterized for its members by common locality and primary interaction”. The “primary interaction” referred to here by Hymes is understood as regular everyday face-to-face contact, which contributes to the emergence of distinct linguistic features and varieties in communities. It must not be forgotten though that Hymes’ definition is from the 1960’s, so the concept of community has inevitably changed since then, no longer being simply defined by locale, non-mediated contact or proximity. Nowadays, relationships and transactions have cut across conventional communal boundaries, becoming increasingly more extensive and independent of physical proximity, consequently changing the concept of community in the process.

As a result, most interactions are now driven by the needs and demands of specific domains of use; thus, leading to the emergence of new discourse communities that share common communicative purposes (Swales 1990), and which contrast with other local speech communities. These groups have been referred to more recently as *communities of practice* (Wenger 1998, Seidlhofer 2009), in which three elements are combined to define competence (Wenger 1998): (1) participants are connected by their mutually developed understanding of what their community is about and take part in some jointly negotiated *enterprise*; (2) participants create their community through *mutual engagement*; and (3) a community of practice has a *shared repertoire* of common resources, such as language, for example, in which participants have access to this repertoire and are able to use it appropriately. Contrary to discourse/speech communities, which are based on mutual cultural and linguistic references, these elements emphasize the flexibility of communities of practice as groups that gather around a specific aim.

The first person that applied the relatively recent concept of *community of practice* to ELF research was Juliane House in 2003. According to House, ELF interactions are essentially based on interlocutors from diverse backgrounds who gather for a specific reason:

The activity-based concept of community of practice with its diffuse alliances and communities of imagination and alignment fits ELF interactions well because ELF participants have heterogeneous backgrounds and diverse social and linguistic expectations. Rather than being characterised by fixed social categories and stable identities,

ELF users are agentively involved in the construction of event-specific, interactional styles and frameworks.

(House 2003: 573)

More recently, and in line with House (2003), Seidlhofer (2009) argues that this notion of community is the one most consistent with the way ELF has been found to function, especially as a means of wider communication; hence questioning what constitutes a “legitimate community” in the traditional sense:

It is English as a lingua franca that is the main means of wider communication for conducting transactions and interactions outside people’s primary social spaces and speech communities. It seems inevitable that with radical technology-driven changes in society, our sense of what constitutes a legitimate community and a legitimate linguistic variety has to change, too. Thus we are witnessing, alongside local speech communities sharing a dialect, the vigorous emergence of regional and global discourse communities (Swales 1990) or communities of practice with their particular ELF registers constituting shared repertoires for international/intercultural communication.

(Seidlhofer 2009: 238-239)

▪ **Ownership**

According to *Collins English Dictionary*, ownership (noun) is defined as: 1. The state or fact of being an owner or 2. The legal right of possession; proprietorship. Nonetheless, the notion of ownership goes much further than just owning/possessing objects. Language itself, especially since the establishment of individual nation states, has also become deeply interconnected with issues of ownership (as well as identity), leading NSs to be traditionally regarded as gatekeepers to correct language use and “owners” of their mother tongue holding “possession” over it.

Ownership, however, cannot and should not be solely associated with the NSs of a language. Brumfit (2001) believes that ownership is associated with those who use a language, regardless of their mother tongue. By making use of it, speakers have the power to adapt⁴ and change the language according to their different communal and communicative needs, as Brumfit proposes with the example of English:

⁴ Note that “adapt” was used rather than “adopt”. “Adaptation” (Widdowson 2003) does not refer to the distribution of the actual language, but to the spread of the virtual language, which in the process of doing so, is actualized. As Widdowson asserts, “the distribution of the actual language implies adoption and conformity. The spread of the virtual language implies adaptation and nonconformity. The two processes are quite different” (Widdowson 2003: 50).

The ownership (by which I mean the power to adapt and change) of any language in effect rests with the people who use it, whoever they are, however multilingual they are, however monolingual they are. (...) Sociolinguistic research over the past half century indicate[s] clearly the extent to which languages are shaped by their use. And for English, the current competent users of English number up to seven hundred million (...) (Crystal 1985), of whom less than half are native speakers. Statistically, native speakers are in a minority for language use, and thus in practice for language change, for language maintenance, and for the ideologies and beliefs associated with the language (...).

(Brumfit 2001: 116)

The notion of the “ownership” of the language has therefore shifted, as most communication in English nowadays takes place between NNSs who wish to gain access to the world of global communication and to overcome lingua-cultural barriers. Widdowson (1994) goes even further and mentions “the very fact that English is an international language means that no nation can have custody over it. To grant such custody over the language is necessarily to arrest its development and so undermine its international status” (1994: 389). The essential issue highlighted then by Widdowson is that by acknowledging the global status of English, NSs cannot insist on its ownership and/or have control over its international development. Once language is free from these ties, it functions as an additional resource used by all who resort to it when necessary, as Seidlhofer (2011b) argues:

(...) once English is conceived of as a common property and thus freed from the ties that bind it to its native speakers and their national interests and becomes altered by its new owners to suit their needs and purposes, it becomes available as an additional resource to be drawn upon as and when functionally required.

(Seidlhofer 2011b: 68-69)

According to this point of view, NNSs of English are no longer perceived as foreigners or as outsiders, but instead, as English language speakers at the same level of NSs, both rightful “owners” and users of the language.

▪ *Intelligibility*

According to Smith and Nelson (2006: 429), “intelligibility” in a broad sense, should be divided into three categories:

1. Intelligibility – word/utterance recognition;
2. Comprehensibility – word/utterance meaning (locutionary force);
3. Interpretability – meaning behind word/utterance (illocutionary force).

These three categories may be thought of as degrees of understanding on a continuum of complexity of variables, from phonological to pragmatic, with intelligibility being the lowest and interpretability the highest (Smith and Nelson 2006). Considering these aspects, in order to ensure effective communication it is not enough to simply exhibit good pronunciation or good lexis and grammar, since utterances have pragmatic effects that cannot be interpreted without taking into consideration situational, social, and cultural awareness.

Bamgbose (1998) also emphasizes that intelligibility is centered on the ability two speakers have in understanding one another rather than on the abstract features of the language. Given that the focus of intelligibility is on the interaction between speakers and listeners, NSs cannot be claimed as the sole judges of what is intelligible, nor can they be judged as more intelligible than NNSs. Taking the existent variability in English as an example, Bamgbose argues how language users employ different varieties according to the functions they take on:

Preoccupation with intelligibility has often taken an abstract form characterized by decontextualized comparison of varieties. The point is often missed that it is people, not language codes, that understand one another, and people use the varieties they speak for specific functions.
(Bamgbose 1998: 11)

In the study of WE and ELF, the distinction among aspects of understanding, as those discussed here – intelligibility, comprehensibility and interpretability, is an especially valuable tool. It not only contributes to the analysis of misunderstandings in cross-cultural interactions, but also to the description of the meaning potential a speaker has available in any given contextual situation (Berns 2006). In addition, this broad interpretation also plays a central role in the assessment of communicative competence in social settings as well as in pedagogical contexts (as it is later discussed regarding English Language Teaching - ELT).

1.4.2. Reflecting on the “F” in EFL and ELF

When reflecting on English language use today, the barrier between different types of language users and language contexts (ENL, ESL⁵, EFL or ELF situations) becomes more and more difficult to define. Our global society has become so interconnected with English as its most common idiom that, in most cases, a traditional variety orientation no longer seems to reflect the current use of the language (Jenkins *et al.* 2011), especially when considering NNSs. Despite this reality, when taking into account Kachru’s Concentric circle model (as previously discussed in section 1.3.), NNSs continue on the most part to be placed in one of two categories: either as ESL or EFL speakers. However, because today’s communicative situations are mostly recognized for their diversity and the multiplicity of interlocutors involved, it becomes extremely difficult to categorize the different scenarios in which NS-NS⁶, NNS-NS or NNS-NNS are involved. The English used in these situations is neither a native language, nor a second language or a foreign language, in the restricted sense of the word, but rather a *lingua franca* that is used and adapted according to the context and its interlocutors.

The term *lingua franca*, in this case, is not associated with its more traditional meaning – first used in reference to a variety spoken in the South-Eastern Mediterranean region between the fifteenth and nineteenth centuries (Knapp and Meierkord 2002). The *lingua franca* of that time was essentially a pidgin based on several Romance languages, and its plurilinguistic composition exemplified an intrinsic and key feature of other *lingua francas* – its hybrid nature. Even though from the sixteenth century onwards English also served as a *lingua franca* throughout parts of Asia and Africa during the British colonial period, the notion of ELF in its modern sense first emerged in the 1980’s with, for instance, Knapp (1987), followed then by several publications in the 1990’s, namely Firth (1996), Firth and Wagner (1997), Jenkins (1998) and House (1999).

Firth (1996) and House (1999) are particularly associated with the first working definitions for ELF, in which, as it may be noticed, only NNSs of English are included:

⁵ ESL = English as a Second Language.

⁶ NS interaction here includes both NSs from the same country (especially since there can be great variability within a single country) and NSs from different English-speaking countries (e.g. British English speaker speaking with an American English speaker).

[ELF is] a “contact language” between persons who share neither a common native tongue nor a common (national) culture, and for whom English is the chosen *foreign* language of communication.

(Firth 1996: 240)

ELF interactions are defined as interactions between members of two or more different linguacultures in English, for none of whom English is the mother tongue.

(House 1999: 74)

It was with the beginning of the new millennium though that research in ELF began to really take off, capturing the interest of both applied linguists and English language teachers. In 2000, Jenkins presented an empirical study on ELF pronunciation, in which standard native English pronunciation is no longer considered the best option for ELF speech interactions. Later in 2001, Seidlhofer claimed that although ELF is “the most extensive contemporary use of English worldwide” (2001: 133), at the time, there was a need for describing this linguistic reality, which both impeded society “from conceiving of speakers of lingua franca English as language users in their own right” (2001: 133) and maintained ENL norms as the only acceptable goal for learners. As a result, given this urgent need for empirical research, Seidlhofer announced the emergence of the first corpus on ELF speech, the Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English (VOICE)⁷. VOICE was soon followed by another corpus led by Anna Mauranen at Helsinki University, however, this time focusing specifically on English as a Lingua Franca in Academic Settings – the ELFA Corpus. In 2010, yet another ELF corpus emerged, led now by Andy Kirkpatrick in Hong Kong, based on the English production of Asians – the Asian Corpus of English (ACE).

In addition, up until today a wide variety of research-based and conceptual publications on ELF have been released, either in dedicated journal issues (e.g. *World Englishes*, 28/2) or in specialized books on the issue (e.g. Jenkins 2007, Kirkpatrick 2010a, Smit 2010, Cogo and Dewey 2011, Mauranen 2012 and Seidlhofer 2011b). Consistent with all of this, not only has there been an increase in the number of master’s theses and doctoral dissertations dedicated to the subject, but an annual

⁷ The VOICE Corpus – both transcripts and recordings – is currently made available for the general public on the official website of the project.

conference series especially devoted to ELF has also been established (Helsinki 2008, Southampton 2009, Vienna 2010, Hong Kong 2011, Istanbul 2012, Rome 2013, Athens 2014 and Beijing 2015) and along with it, conference proceedings. Furthermore, and taking into account all the studies that have been published, another strategic advance has been the *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca* (JELF) published by Gruyter Mouton, a journal specifically dedicated to research in ELF.

Considering the number of works developed in such a short period of time, it is not surprising that several controversies have been aroused by skeptical linguists and teaching professionals. For that reason, it is essential to reflect on how to best define ELF in opposition to EFL.

Contrary to Firth (1996) and House (1999), whose definitions in effect include one of ELF's specific features – that most of its users are NNSs, recent research has claimed that ELF is not a deficient and unsuccessful attempt at native English, being NSs of English likewise taken into account in this type of communication (Jenkins 2011). Two of the most recent definitions which include these features can be found in Seidlhofer (2011b) and on the VOICE Corpus website:

Any use of English among speakers of different first languages for whom English is the communicative medium of choice, and often the only option.

(Seidlhofer 2011b: 7)

An additionally acquired language system which serves as a common means of communication for speakers of different first languages.

(VOICE)

Brumfit (2002) also further argues in favor of the significant role that ELF users have assumed within several global domains and notes how their language production is free from several restraints:

[ELF users] are an increasing significant group who operate in an increasingly global economy which has an impact on the economy of all countries [... and] the internet, mobile phones and other technology increasingly establishes the potential for use of English which is quite independent of the controls offered by traditional educational systems, publishing outlets and radio/television.

(Brumfit 2002: 5)

Taking into consideration the current use and role of ELF, its divergence from the traditional notion of EFL is clear, and therefore needs to be distinguished (Figure 1.4.). According to Jenkins (2006b, 2011), ELF belongs to the *global Englishes* paradigm in which all Englishes are regarded as *sui generis*, whereas EFL belongs to the *modern foreign languages* paradigm, according to which the aim is to approximate one's language use as close as possible to the NS. As a result, ELF takes on a *difference* perspective when compared with the *deficit* perspective of EFL. In other words, according to ELF, differences from native English may be understood as legitimate variation, while in EFL they will always be deemed as errors. Jenkins further argues that, “ELF’s metaphors are of *language contact and evolution*, whereas EFL’s metaphors are of *interference and fossilization*” (2011: 292). As a result, code-mixing and code-switching in ELF are regarded as part of a bilingual’s *pragmatic strategies*, whereas EFL regards them as proof of *gaps in knowledge*.

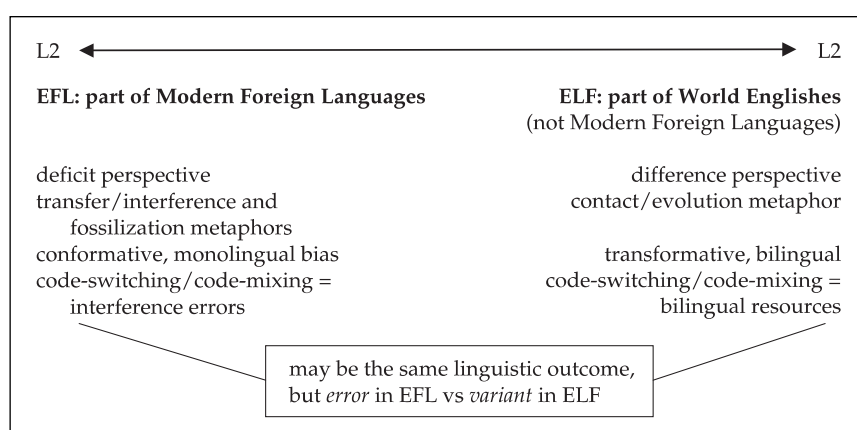


Figure 1.4. EFL contrasted with ELF (Jenkins 2006b)

Thus, when considering an EFL perspective, NNSs are generally positioned as outsiders/“foreigners” striving to obtain access to a target community they will never completely be a part of, since the language will ultimately always be viewed as belonging to another person and therefore, NNSs having no ownership over it. Graddol (2006) further explains that from this perspective, “the learner is constructed as a linguistic tourist – allowed to visit, but without rights of residence and required always to respect the superior authority of native speakers” (2006: 83).

Due to the world being so interconnected and English being associated with globalization, emphasis simply placed on a traditional varieties’ approach in favor of a native speaker model no longer seems feasible; instead, attention may be given to

the adaptable, fluctuating, hybrid and deeply intercultural nature of English. Contrastively from EFL, and even most NSs, proficient speakers of ELF are able to deal with these features, therefore no longer simply being viewed as *learners* with “errors”, but rather as competent communicators or *users*, who know how to draw on the resources made available for achieving intelligible and effective communication:

[ELF users are] highly skilled communicators who make use of their multilingual resources in ways not available to monolingual NSEs, and who are found to prioritize successful communication over narrow notions of ‘correctness’ in ways that NSEs, with their stronger attachment to their native English, may find more challenging.

(Jenkins *et al.* 2011: 284)

Bearing in mind these issues, it may be concluded that ELF is defined *functionally* in relation to its use in intercultural communication, as opposed to *formally* regarding its reference to NS norms. Instead of users of English being repressed by institutionalized forms that constrain naturally occurring processes of language production, Hülmbauer *et al.* (2008) stresses the importance of equal communicative rights for ELF users, especially in what concerns appropriation:

Speakers of any L1 can appropriate ELF for their own purposes without over-deference to native-speaker norms. This counteracts a deficit view of lingua franca English in that it implies equal communicative rights for all its speakers. So defined, ELF is emphatically *not* the English as a property of its native speakers, but is democratized and universalized in the ‘exolingual’ process of being appropriated for international use.

(Hülmbauer *et al.* 2008: 27)

Still on the notions of form and function, Seidlhofer (2011b) also emphasizes the importance of ELF use being adapted according to each communicative situation, especially in cases where it greatly differs from native speaker use and native speakers contexts. According to her, non-conformity to native speaker forms is a natural outcome of the appropriate decisions made by the users in the communicative situations in question:

Like any other use of language, formal properties of ELF are functionally motivated, and since the functions they are required to

serve differ from those served by the forms of native speaker usage, their non-conformity is a natural consequence of appropriate communicative adaptation.

(Seidlhofer 2011b: 124)

Contrary to what may be thought, it ought to be underlined that non-conformity to form does not necessarily impede functional effectiveness; on the contrary, it can actually heighten it. An example of this may be the fact that language users are able to exploit the different virtual resources of the language, so as to make suitable reference to things, always keeping in mind the specific situation and the interlocutors involved.

In order to apprehend the complex nature of ELF use and its functional effectiveness, much research has been carried out at a variety of linguistic levels, especially concerning phonology and pronunciation (e.g. Jenkins 2000, 2002), lexis and lexicogrammar (e.g. Seidlhofer 2004, Cogo and Dewey 2006) as well as pragmatics (e.g. Mauranten 2006, Pitzl 2005).

In terms of phonology, Jenkins (2000) studies both pronunciation-based intelligibility issues and the use of phonological accommodation. The central aim is essentially to identify to what extent pronunciation causes miscommunication among NNSs, and which phonological features are subject to accommodation for interlocutors to make themselves better understood. Research findings indicate that speakers do in fact adapt their pronunciation according to the situation in question, so Jenkins identified what has become known as the Lingua Franca Core (LFC). The LFC indicates “core” features⁸ that are likely to contribute to mutual intelligibility, and if users of English apply these alongside different accommodation skills, Jenkins believes they are able to adapt their pronunciation and use different skills to achieve successful communication.

At a lexicogrammatical level, for instance, Seidlhofer (2004: 220) presents some preliminary ELF features as examples of lingua franca variation. What would otherwise be seen as “fossilized” errors in ELT or as features resilient to the NS-based corrections of ELT teachers, according to Seidlhofer, these instances might be viewed as specific traits that do not impede communication and understanding⁹:

⁸ For a more detailed explanation and examples of the core features of the LFC, see Jenkins (2000).

⁹ Since Seidlhofer’s publication in 2004, a number of subsequent research studies corroborating these ELF traits have been published, namely Breiteneder (2005, 2009) or Cogo and Dewey (2011).

- ‘Dropping’ of the third person present tense –s;
- ‘Confusing’ the relative pronouns *who* and *which*;
- ‘Omitting’ definite and indefinite articles where they are obligatory in ENL, and inserting them where they do not occur in ENL;
- ‘Failing’ to use correct forms in tag questions (e.g., *isn’t it?* or *no?* instead of *shouldn’t they?*);
- ‘Inserting’ redundant prepositions, as in *We have to study about...*;
- ‘Overusing’ certain verbs of high semantic generality, such as *do, have, make, put, take*;
- ‘Replacing’ infinitive-constructions with *that*-clauses, as in *I want that*;
- ‘Overdoing’ explicitness (e.g. *black color* rather than just *black*);

As with research into ELF lexicogrammar, there is also an increasing amount of work being done on ELF pragmatics. Many studies have already explored the means by which participants from different socio-cultural environments achieve understanding and build a common ground, namely through the signaling and negotiation of non-understanding to resolve instances of miscommunication. It cannot go without saying though, that one common finding observed in ELF interactions is that non-understanding and miscommunications tend to occur less frequently when compared to native speaker communication (Jenkins *et al.* 2011). However, when they do occur, ELF interlocutors tend to display a high level of interactional and pragmatic competence in how they indicate non-understanding (without disturbing the conversation), while simultaneously providing the other speaker with enough evidence to solve the problem (Pitzl 2005). Some of the pre-empting strategies employed by ELF speakers that have proven especially pertinent in ensuring understanding and mutual intelligibility, include: clarification, self-repair and repetition (Mauranen 2006), as well as paraphrasing (Kaur 2009) and the exploitation of plurilingual resources, namely code-switching (Hülmbauer 2009).

In view of what has so far been discussed about EFL and ELF, it may be concluded that contrary to EFL, users of ELF are contrastively presented as skillful interlocutors who know how to “negotiate and co-construct English for their own purposes, treating the language as a shared communicative resource within which they innovate, accommodate and code-switch, all the while enjoying the freedom to

produce forms that NSEs [native speakers of English] do not necessarily use” (Jenkins *et al.* 2011: 297). ELF interaction is therefore recognized for its considerable linguistic variation according to the interactions and the series of purposes in question, including not only the promotion of intelligibility between speakers from different L1s, but also the projection of cultural identity, the promotion of solidarity and the sharing of humor (Jenkins *et al.* 2011).

These notions have undoubtedly contributed to an increased awareness for the need to perform and communicate successfully within a variety of domains. Nevertheless, the challenge continues for ELF researchers, and even more so for ELT professionals, to discover methods for dealing with this variability characteristic of ELF, so that it may be included in language teaching. As it will be seen in Chapter 2, one thing however is certain, a visible shift in English language pedagogy research is underway – traditional approaches concerned with models of Standard English and grammatical correctness, are giving way to those more preoccupied with developing communicative effectiveness and aspects of communicative competence (Berns 2006, Byram 1997, Byram and Garcia 2009, Canale and Swain 1980, Hymes 1962, 1972, Halliday 1978).

1.5. Summary and final remarks

This chapter began by focusing on the characterization of English language use on a global scale, from L1, to L2, to foreign language, and lastly, to lingua franca. After taking into consideration a historical perspective, several models were presented as a way to describe the current use of the language. Of the several models denoted, Kachru’s Concentric circle model (1985) was the one chosen as the point of departure for this study. Despite its limitations, it not only helps grasp the international patterns of English use, but it also considers the learning contexts rather than the individual learners, which is the main focus of this study.

Bearing in mind then the role of English as a lingua franca in the twenty and twenty-first centuries, this section also attempted to illustrate how traditional notions of *variety*, *community*, *ownership* and *intelligibility* have been called into question. As a lingua franca, it was noted how no single variety can be considered as more correct or appropriate, especially when those who use the language are generally part of a

greater hybrid, flexible, fluid and intercultural community, as opposed to the conventional concept of static, stable and constant communities. As a result, ownership has come to prevail among all those who use the language, and since NNSs currently outnumber NSs by far, it is the former group that greater contributes with new patterns of use. This consequently calls into question the notion of intelligibility, which as it has been discussed, is no longer simply associated with exhibiting good command of pronunciation, lexis or grammar, but essentially with possessing a certain situational, social, and cultural awareness that needs to be trained.

With these central issues reevaluated in light of the current linguistic panorama, the last part of the chapter centered its attention on comparing and contrasting the notions of EFL and ELF, by demonstrating how both perceive English language use differently. Particular attention was given to ELF, not only in terms of research paradigm, but also in relation to function, as opposed to form. Reference was made to research conducted at a variety of linguistic levels, especially in what concerns lexis, lexicogrammar, phonology and pragmatics. The aim of these studies was to demonstrate how effective communication could likewise be achieved even when Standard English is not applied. ELF interactions are not characterized for interlocutors' impeccable grammar use and pronunciation, but more importantly, for their pre-empting strategies and their interactional and pragmatic competence when indicating confusion or misunderstandings, for instance.

The notion of ELF has without a doubt promoted the need for an increased socio-cultural and linguistic awareness to successfully perform and communicate within a variety of domains. The challenge that persists though is the variability inherent in ELF communication and how it may be included in ELT. It is bearing this in mind that Chapter 2 will reflect on how a traditional standard-based approach is giving way to one more preoccupied with the broader spectrum, in which developing communicative effectiveness and intercultural communicative competence are essential issues.

Chapter 2

English Language Teaching: from an EFL to an ELF approach

“Why don’t they teach English as English, that’s what I want to know?”
(Barnes 1992: 122)

2.1. Introduction

This chapter is centered on foreign language teaching issues as it attempts to ultimately reanalyze ELT in view of the current linguistic panorama. It will begin however with a brief historical overview of the different methods and approaches to foreign language teaching in general, ranging from the Grammar-Translation Method in the nineteenth century to more recent communicative language approaches.

Following this, the specific case of ELT will be considered; focusing on how standards and objectives have changed throughout time, as far as English is concerned, from its establishment as a standard national language to its role as the most commonly shared international language. In fact, in recent years it no longer exclusively takes on the role of a foreign language (in the traditional sense of word), but instead mainly functions as a lingua franca. With this in mind, the aim of reconceptualizing how the field of Applied Linguistics considers and discusses language becomes especially challenging for those advocating in favor of a new and different perspective.

In view of this, the chapter will move on to question and reflect on the EFL and ELF paradigms, by analyzing different views about such concepts as language learner vs. language user, and language as form vs. language as function. In the latter case, important concepts such as language, culture, identity and teaching materials will be reflected upon, when comparing an EFL and an ELF approach. In addition, the notion of intercultural communicative competence will also be discussed, especially in what concerns the different skills and strategies that can be developed, in order to achieve effective communication when in international settings.

The final part of this chapter will take into account how change can be brought to ELT. It will first consider teachers' resistance towards new approaches to language teaching and after that, it will discuss the importance of teacher education programs in implementing new attitudes and approaches to ELT, by helping in- and pre-service teachers to overcome their fears and insecurities.

2.2. A historical perspective on foreign language teaching: approaches and methods

Foreign language teaching methods have undergone several transformations throughout history, largely due to the variations in the type of proficiency skills learners require (e.g. whether it is mainly for reading comprehension or oral proficiency), and the changes in theories of the nature of language and language learning/teaching (Richards and Rogers 2001). Nevertheless, the current controversies in foreign language teaching are not necessarily new, but simply responses to issues that have many times been put into question in the past.

Foreign language learning/teaching have indeed played an important role throughout time. While English is the dominant foreign language studied today, in the past, Latin and later French (from the sixteenth century onwards) played central roles in spoken and written communication. Although Latin as a language for communication faced a significant decline, its study as a classical language rose considerably, and, along with it, so did the grammar and rhetoric associated with it. During the eighteenth century, as modern languages simultaneously increased in the curricula of European schools, these continued to be taught using similar procedures to that of Latin – following grammar rules, establishing vocabulary lists and translating sentences. In other words, learners focused mainly on “frozen” language structures (e.g. morphology and syntax) rather than on actual effective language use. This type of language learning process became known as the Grammar-Translation Method, the dominant foreign language teaching method in Europe from the 1840's to the 1940's¹⁰, and, despite its several disadvantages regarding actual oral production, it

¹⁰ Some of the leading advocates of the Grammar-Translation Method at that time included Johann Meidinger, H. S. Ollendorf, Karl Plötz and Johann Seidenstrücker, for instance.

still continues to persist in some parts of the world today, especially due to lack of qualified teachers or appropriate materials.

By the mid-nineteenth century, this method began to be questioned by theorists, as the demand for oral proficiency grew alongside the increasing chances for communication among Europeans. Because of this, individual language specialists such as, C. Marcel, F. Gouin, and T. Pendergast¹¹ put forth new approaches to language teaching; however, despite their importance at the time, these approaches did not have a lasting impact.

It was only in the 1880's that it began to be argued by scholars and reformers like Paul Passy, Henry Sweet and Wilhelm Viëtor that foreign language teaching should be centered on the scientific knowledge of the language. Adding to this, the establishment of Phonetics contributed with new perceptions to speech processes¹². Essentially, according to the Reform Movement, the central issues in language teaching revolved around how: 1) the learning process should begin with spoken language and only afterwards focus on other skills, 2) words and sentences should be presented in context and not taught as isolated elements, 3) grammar should be taught inductively, and 4) translation should, on the whole, be avoided (Kitao and Kitao¹³). These principles not only reflect the early stages of the field of Applied Linguistics¹⁴, but also the beliefs of scholars at that time.

As these ideas spread, they provided the foundations for what became known as the Direct Method, the first of the “natural methods” (when second or foreign language teaching takes on an approach similar to that of first language learning). According to this method, the following notions should be considered: 1) only the target language should be used in classrooms (hence the strong emphasis on oral speech), 2) daily vocabulary and sentence structures should be adopted, and 3)

¹¹ Despite their different opinions, Gouin, Marcel and Pendergast believed that the way children learned a language was relevant to how adults should learn language as well (Richards and Rogers 2001). Gouin, for instance, argued that children learned a language by using it for a sequence of related events and that each new item presented should be done in context as well as with gestures, so as to add on to verbal meaning. Marcel, on the other hand, believed that emphasis should be placed on the understanding of meaning in language learning; while Pendergast proposed the first structural syllabus, in which he advocated that the most basic grammatical structures should be taught first.

¹² Around the same period, not only was the International Phonetic Association founded (1886), with the aim of improving the teaching of modern languages, but so was the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) created.

¹³ Website: <http://www.cis.doshisha.ac.jp/kkitao/library/article/tesl-his.htm> - “The history of English teaching methodology”.

¹⁴ The term Applied Linguistics refers to here as a particular branch of language study centered on the scientific study of second and foreign language learning and teaching.

speaking and listening comprehension should be taught, as well as correct pronunciation and grammar. Because of its similarities with first language learning and its inability to adapt to practical foreign language classroom realities, the Direct Method was successfully implemented mainly in private language schools, but not as much in public education, due to its numerous drawbacks. Basically, what it did was bring innovation regarding teaching procedures; however, it lacked the comprehensive methodological basis necessary for official state education.

Bearing this in mind, in the 1920's and 1930's, Sweet and other applied linguists argued in favor of developing sound methodological principles, which would function as a basis for teaching techniques. These efforts consequently led to the Audiolingualism and the Oral Approach (also known as Situational Language Teaching) in the United States and in Britain, respectively.

After World War II, the significant increase in language diversity also brought about considerable changes, which would influence both language learning and teaching. Foreign language learning was no longer confined to a privileged elite, but with the expansion of schooling, it became a necessary requirement for many in a number of different fields, namely for international business and travel, as well as cultural and social exchanges. For that reason, between the 1950's and the 1980's, several new approaches/methods emerged, which attempted to: 1) use new technology effectively (e.g. radios, tape recorders, television and computers), 2) explore new educational patterns (e.g. bilingual education, immersion programs and individualized instruction) and 3) found methodological innovations (Kitao and Kitao). Some of the methods developed include the Audiolingual Method¹⁵ and the Situational Method, which were later succeeded by several communicative language teaching approaches at the end of the century. Contrary to what had been previously presented, these approaches were now characterized as being more centered on the learning results rather than on the teaching methods themselves. Some of those put forth include,

¹⁵ The Audiolingual Method is mainly centered on developing oral skills in the early stages, and as the learning process progresses, it becomes little by little linked to other skills. The main goal is to achieve oral proficiency, and, in order to succeed, it is necessary to acquire correct grammar and pronunciation, along with the competence to reply correctly and rapidly. In other words, as Brooks (1964: 107) puts it, "[it] must be language as the native speaker uses it." See Chapter 4 "The Audiolingual Method" in Richards and Rogers (2001) for a more in depth analysis.

Competency-Based Language Teaching¹⁶, Content-Based Instruction¹⁷ and Task-Based Language Teaching¹⁸, among others.

Contrasting with the methods previously referred to, which were more relatively fixed, and contained certain specifications regarding content, teachers' and learners' roles as well as teaching techniques, approaches tend to be characterized as non-prescriptive, hence the possibility of them being open to a variety of interpretations and applications that can continuously be revised. However, due to the lack of detail in approaches, these can be especially frustrating for novice teachers, who have little or no experience in language teaching, and feel more secure with methods that stipulate what to teach and how to teach it, in addition to also providing a wide resource of activities.

Irrespective of taking on a specific method or approach, the main aspect to consider is its practicality (Richards and Rogers 2001), so, it is necessary that language educators fully understand the method or approach in question, in order for it to be successfully applied. Bearing this in mind, professional entities, ministries of education and prominent academics at universities, to name a few, play a key role in disseminating innovative processes for language teaching.

Teachers in training, especially, should continue to be taught the major methods and approaches already developed, so as to later draw on them, and be able to use, adapt and add on to them according to their specific needs and situations. By

¹⁶ Competency-Based Language Teaching takes into consideration the social context in which the language is used, and is therefore many times used for situations in which learners have particular needs and/or take on specific goals where the necessary language skills may be predicted or predetermined. The essential competencies developed include the attitudes, behaviors, knowledge and skills necessary to effectively take on a specific activity or task (e.g. work or social inclusion in new environments). See Chapter 13 "Competency-Based Language Teaching" in Richards and Rogers (2001) for a more in depth analysis.

¹⁷ According to Krahne (1987: 65), Content-Based Instruction "is the teaching of content or information in the language being learned with little or no direct or explicit effort to teach the language itself separately from the content being taught." One of its main aims is for learners to be autonomous, so that they can "take charge of their own learning" (Stryker and Leaver 1993: 286). The role of teachers is likewise reconsidered, as they are no longer merely language specialists; they must also be familiar with the topics that are explored and be capable of eliciting that information from students. See Chapter 17 "Content-Based Instruction" in Richards and Rogers (2001) for a more in depth analysis.

¹⁸ Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) is mainly centered on using tasks (an activity or goal accomplished using language) as the central unit for language teaching and was popularized with SLA in the late 1980's and 1990's (Long and Crookes 1992, Willis 1996). Since TBLT is usually determined by learners' needs, it is more preoccupied with the learning process rather than with certain content and skills that may be obtained through the use of these processes (Richards and Rogers 2001). According to Nunan (1989), the tasks developed could be either real-world tasks or pedagogical tasks, depending on the aim. Moreover, tasks could give both the input and output processing required in language acquisition, they are motivational, and they can likewise be negotiated and adjusted according to specific pedagogical purposes (Richards and Rogers 2001). See Chapter 18 "Task-Based Language Teaching" in Richards and Rogers (2001) for a more in depth analysis.

doing so, they are able to develop their own personal approach or method, and at the same time reflect their individual beliefs, experiences, principles and values (Richards and Rogers 2001). As a result, teacher education programs play a key part in not only reviewing what has already been established, but also in disseminating new ways of looking at the language teaching profession.

2.3. ELT from past to present: standards and objectives

The English language teaching industry, as we know it today, is a multi-billionaire industry characterized as being highly competitive and centered on a Standard English model. The UK and US have both exploited and developed the language in such a way, that it has become an essential commodity; and a clear example of this is the multiplicity of Applied Linguistics courses and programs targeted at language professionals, who seek to improve their skills in a variety of areas, namely: teaching, teacher training, teaching materials, research or proficiency exams (e.g. Cambridge exams), to name a few. In addition, the relatively recent rise in the demand for English has resulted in the emergence of schools, private language schools, universities, online businesses and publishers specializing in English; hence, filling in the existing gap in markets. Organizations like IATEFL (International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language) or TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) have likewise played a key role in promoting conferences, seminars and workshops where ELT teachers from around the world can meet, share and exchange experiences and academic work. Consequently, the number of international journal publications dedicated to ELT has risen too, being some of the most well-known: *ELT Journal*, *English Today*, *TESOL Quarterly*, *World Englishes* or *TESOL Newsletter*.

Considering the flourishing and prosperous market of English, one may question what contributed to it becoming the standardized language taught today. Throughout the centuries, different ideas concerning English language teaching have thrived as well as declined, following specific paths as well as having been affected by undercurrents of tendency. Before the 1800's, for instance, English was basically learnt as a spoken language for specific purposes, hence having a practical objective (for business and travel, similarly to what happens today). But, from then onwards,

most learners were adults and since printed books were on the rise, many of those learners also began to become interested in reading texts only available in English¹⁹. As a result, it became urgent to turn English into a teachable language and with it also arose the need to stabilize its orthography, standardize its grammar and establish an authoritative dictionary. As a result, the initial steps were being taken to establish a standardized language that could be taught and learnt by all.

Initially, materials like English grammars were Latin based, due to the influence Latin had previously had, however, these grammars failed in the sense that they entailed inadequate categories when regarding English. Apart from this, there was also a clear transition from a language mainly taught to be spoken, to a language learning process that neglected speech, as the aim of the first grammarians was to make “prescriptive” judgments on what was deemed “correct” (Howatt 2004). That is, the objective consisted in stipulating a standard for teaching what was considered good English; hence, it being normative in intention and didactic in purpose.

Some of the main publications that contributed to the standardization of the language both in the UK and the US include the following grammars and dictionaries, listed in chronological order:

- Samuel Johnson (1755), *The English Dictionary*;
- Robert Lowth (1762), *A Short Introduction to English Grammar with Critical Notes*;
- John Walker (1791), *Critical Pronouncing Dictionary*;
- Lindley Murray (1795), *English Grammar, adapted to the different classes of learners*;
- William Cobbett (1819), *A Grammar of the English Language, in a series of letters*;
- Noah Webster (1828), *American Dictionary of the English Language*.

As mentioned by Howatt (2004), the main customers of these dictionaries and grammars in 1800 were basically foreign students of English, school pupils, private scholars and “middle brow” learners for both professional and social reasons.

¹⁹ At the time, among progressive intellectual and theological groups abroad, there was a growing interest in English philosophy and literature, especially since England was viewed as a country that explored innovative ideas in areas like divinity and philosophy.

Furthermore, by establishing recognized standards, these also gave the increasingly educated and well-off middle class the self-confidence necessary to deal with those superior to them (an issue that beforehand was unthinkable).

During the nineteenth century English language teaching spread widely not only through Europe, but also throughout the world, especially due to the influence of the language in colonial territories. Consequently, in order to establish and maintain academic standards, a system of public examinations controlled by universities was established; first, the Oxford and Cambridge Local Examinations in 1858 and later, the Overseas Examinations, which were instituted in the early 1860's. These not only regulated syllabus content, but also defined the methodological principles of teachers, and contributed to the increase in the status of the language.

With the expansion of the railway service in the nineteenth century (especially throughout Europe), mobility between countries was encouraged, bringing together people from distance places. Seeing as these new encounters stimulated face-to-face interactions, and since language, as a means of communication itself, is sensitive to change, the demand for travelers' phrasebooks spread and so did textbooks. As mentioned in Howatt (2004: 158–159), textbooks were the product of a growing market for “methods”, which offered on the one hand, “a more thorough grounding while at the same time keeping at least half-an-eye on the practical needs”; but on the other hand, they also “established a basic design that was repeated from one language to the next.”

Despite the unique advances in the late nineteenth century in foreign language teaching with the Reform movement and the implementation of the Direct Method (as referred to in the previous section), it is only in the twentieth century that ELT establishes itself as an autonomous profession. Howatt (2004) divides this process into three phases, first from 1900–1946, which consisted in laying the foundations; then from 1946–1970, which was a time centered on consolidation and renewal; and finally, from 1970 onwards, where emphasis was and continues to be given to language and communication.

To begin with, the first phase comprises four different educational contexts in which English proliferated, that is: European secondary schools, adult education in Europe, basic schooling throughout the Empire, as well as Adult education in the UK (e.g. English for foreigners). It was at this time that not only a modern “applied

linguistic” approach to language teaching was introduced, but it also, “became the foundation stone of English as a foreign language” (Howatt 2004: 234).

Alongside the need to establish a stable basis, there came the demand for more useful and efficient teaching materials, and reflection on how these could be applied in classrooms. The support from publishing houses played (and still continues to play) a fundamental role in sustaining the ELT profession with many types of publications targeted at both students and teachers. In the 1930’s, for instance, publishing houses such as Green (up until the 1960’s), Longman and Oxford University Press began to put into circulation ELT textbooks as well as continuing series, and because of this, have since then maintained their leadership in the ELT market. In addition, other companies worth mentioning include Macmillan and Cambridge University Press, which despite having entered this market more recently, have been equally important.

Furthermore, in the 1930’s there were still a number of other important factors that clearly contributed to the foundation phase. For example, the British Council (founded in 1934) established a number of Institutes of English Studies around the world, with particular emphasis in Europe²⁰; the first teacher training course for English as a foreign language was established in 1935 by the Institute of Education; and by 1943, BBC (which was transmitted in 24 languages across Europe) was broadcasting twice a day short English lessons entitled “English by Radio”. These elements not only played an important role in the spread of ELT, but also in establishing standards regarding both British language and culture.

As for the second phase, it can be divided into two periods: the consolidation period (1946-1960) and the renewal period (1960-1970). Curiously, 1946 coincides with the year the British Council sponsored a journal named *English Language Teaching*, which also symbolized a renewed dedication to teacher training as well as progress and enhancement. It was also at this time that certified qualifications related to ELT started to emerge, ranging from postgraduate certificates to doctorates. The need for practical classroom advice was clearly visible too, but since it was right after the war, the poor economic situation unfortunately hindered the advance in new student course materials. It was only in the mid-1950’s when the economy began to recuperate, that EFL did as well.

²⁰ Initially, the British Council was created to counteract the fascist propaganda in the Mediterranean, namely in Egypt, Greece and Portugal. Regardless of the political regime at the time, these Institutes were generally well received by the public, hence contributing to their success.

During the renewal period (1960-1970), the number of overseas students going to the UK greatly increased, hence justifying the founding of organizations such as ATEFL (Association for Teaching English as a Foreign Language) in 1967 (and from 1971 onwards known as IATEFL – I for International) and BAAL (British Association of Applied Linguistics) in 1967. Within the US, the increasing need for English teaching targeted at minority groups, also triggered the need for ELT teachers to have their own association; for instance, TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages) made its appearance in 1966.

It was during this decade that the notions of ESL and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) also began to be considered, as the demand for English increased and along with it, so did the numbers of learners for specific purposes. Due to this, English lessons were centered on a situational approach, in which dialogs depicting real-life events were used to display actual language use (e.g. eating out, going to the cinema). However, by the end of the decade, it became clear that it is impossible to control or predict situations, as well as the language that may be employed. Instead of looking at situations as a whole, attention was now placed on how to analyze smaller categories that make up an event, such as how to make requests or give an opinion, among other functions. In view of this, the first steps were taken to connect linguistic form with actual language use, leading the way to the third phase in ELT.

In the language and communication phase (1970 to present), particular emphasis has been given to communication at all levels, namely in assessment, course materials and syllabus; hence, the emergence of a Communicative Language Teaching model. In addition, since by the 1970's English had begun to take on a vital role in students' lives, course content became likewise a central aspect, so that it could be relevant for its target audience. Consequently, the need to differentiate general learners from specific learners became increasingly demarcated, and along with it, the growing pressure for programs centered on ESP (e.g. English for Academic Purposes or English for Scientific Purposes).

The role of Corpus linguistics in recent decades has also been vital for developments in ELT²¹. It not only reflects the importance of technology in general, but also how language use and communication have changed, allowing for the

²¹ The COBUILD dictionary is the result of the first major corpus based on the English language. John Sinclair (University of Birmingham) based his work on the computer analysis of a corpus of monolingual NSs, and devised it consistent with the findings gathered.

recording and analysis of language production. Bearing this in mind, Howatt (2004: 358) claims that, “Corpus linguistics (...) can reveal real English, as distinct from some speculative substitute,” and it is this “real English” that has played a part in recent reflections in pedagogic aims as well as in strategies for teaching materials. Before the COBUILD Dictionary was published in 1987, John Sinclair had already argued that corpus descriptions were important at various levels. As he put it, “since our view of the language will change profoundly, we must expect substantial influence on the specification of syllabuses, design of materials, and choice of method” (Sinclair 1985: 252).

Carter (1998: 43) adds on that, “the word ‘real’ invariably carries positive associations. People believe they want or are told they want, or indeed actually want what is real, authentic and natural in preference to what is unreal, unauthentic and unnatural.” However, it must be noted that the “real” English prescribed in dictionaries and grammars (e.g. COBUILD Dictionary) is mainly restricted to native-speaker corpuses, where Inner circle norms are favored. Regarding the specific case of the COBUILD Dictionary, Widdowson (2003: 31) argues, “the usage that is represented as real in the dictionary is necessarily selective and restrictive in range.” The same argument may be applied for all other reference materials, in which a single perspective is given, therefore, leading one to question in what circumstances that “real” English may be properly applied.

Since English use in recent decades has been primarily centered on international communication among those who do not have English as their L1, and who mainly use it as a lingua franca, one may start to doubt the validity of conforming to native speaker norms as a guarantee for successful communication (Jenkins 2000, 2002). Currently, native speaker norms are no longer the only beacon guiding learners to achieve effective communicative competence, as other modified forms of English are recognized as both legitimate and enhancing in terms of functional range (rather than restricted or inferior, as previously the case). With this in mind, users can express themselves more freely without conforming to specific linguistic and/or sociocultural norms. However, this is only pedagogically conceivable if adjustments are made in several areas, namely with teachers, course objectives, curriculum design, teaching materials and even assessment.

Corpora like ACE, ELFA and VOICE have played a vital role in describing lingua franca use in a variety of domains among an array of speakers. Moreover, the

annual international conferences on English as a Lingua Franca (as mentioned in Chapter 1) have also contributed to bringing forth and disseminating studies in ELF. While the initial conferences focused mainly on describing ELF through corpora, sociolinguistics, multilingualism and intercultural communication, more recently, practical issues, such as language policies, language education, teacher training, language learners, assessment and evaluation have been reflected upon too, as vital for progress in ELT. In addition to these conferences, a wide number of books have likewise been published on the implications of ELF in language teaching, being some of them: Alsagoff *et al.* (2012), Bayyurt and Ackan (2015), Jenkins (2007, 2014), Kirkpatrick (2007b), Llurda (2005), Mackenzie (2014), Matsuda (2012), Mauranen (2012), McKay (2002), Seidlhofer (2011b), Sharifian (2009) and Widdowson (2004).

Given that change in English language use is attributable to enumerable circumstances, in particular globalization and communication, it is clear that the learning/teaching processes also need to go hand in hand with these changes. Essentially, it may be argued then that the concept of a foreign language associated with a particular country and culture has given way to a lingua franca that belongs and is used by all.

2.4. EFL vs. ELF: questioning and reflecting on the paradigms

Graddol (2006:11) claims, “[English is no longer] English as we have known it, and have taught it in the past as a foreign language,” but “a new phenomenon” now recognized as English as a Lingua Franca. Given the number of different English varieties (and cultures) worldwide and the comparatively recent concept of ELF, several have been the issues put into question regarding ELT, such as:

1. Which variety should be adopted as the model to follow (and along with it, its culture as well), and
2. How should other varieties (as well as cultures) be managed within the classroom environment?

From an EFL perspective, for most ELT teachers, the most common answer is Standard English, particularly one of the two most notable varieties, Standard British

English (especially in Europe) or General American English, and associated with each variety, is the traditional notion of culture (e.g. Big Ben and the Royal family, and the Statue of Liberty, respectively).

Standard English as a superposed variety implies stability, an especially attractive feature for a language variety that is to be employed as a model with pedagogical intentions. However, in reality, the ideal of a standard static variety only exists in prescriptive reference books (e.g. grammars and dictionaries). Given its unstable nature, in real use, language in fact changes in time, adapting its structure to fit varying circumstances. This innovative aspect is a natural process that is put into play whenever language is used as an adaptable resource for making meaning in new cultural settings, such as when users develop original ways to discuss recent findings, which is especially visible in pioneering technologies.

Rather than focusing on achieving a “static standard variety”, characteristic of foreign language teaching approaches, attention may instead be turned to how language has been appropriated at a global level, making one rethink native speaker rules as sole reference markers. Bearing this in mind, Widdowson (2003) claims that rather than centering language teaching on specific details and goals, when using a language that is especially employed at an international level, it is more relevant to develop skills that contribute to subsequent learning:

I have argued that setting objectives for learners to achieve must take account the way the language has been appropriated internationally as a means of communication, and that this should lead us to think again about defining such objectives in reference to native-speaker norms. I have suggested that rather than seeking to specify goals in terms of projected needs, which for the most part are highly unpredictable, it would be preferable, and more practicable, to focus on the development of a more general capability which would serve as an investment for subsequent learning.

(Widdowson 2003:177)

As a result, the implications of the type of English that is taught should be considered, especially by comparing what is generally accepted and how it may alternatively be conceptualized. Not only does the aim need to be considered, but so does the process by which the aim is attained; hence, both ends and means are equally vital when devising an approach for ELT classrooms/groups. For instance, for some learners, achieving native speaker norms may continue to be the fundamental goal; however, it

does not necessarily mean it must be established as a teaching objective. Realistically, it is unfeasible to acquire native speaker norms within a classroom environment, as it can only be acquired at a posterior stage and if the socio-psychological circumstances allow it – an aspect that classroom environments cannot replicate. The classroom therefore mainly functions as a facilitator to the learning process; it is how it is used afterwards and in what circumstances that molds one's English.

Following Widdowson's line of reasoning (2003), Seidlhofer (2011b: 197-198) similarly puts forth several key arguments that help rethink English (as a subject), and which may contribute to a better understanding of what consists an ELF approach and how it differs from EFL. First of all, many NNSs are able to communicate effectively in English, however, if they were to be measured according to native speaker norms, they would be deemed inept. Nevertheless, these speakers still continue to be competent users in their different fields, proving that conformity to native speaker norms is not a compulsory condition for communication. Despite their limitations from a conventional standpoint, these “‘failed’ learners can be(come) effective users” (Seidlhofer 2011b: 197).

Considering this issue, language professionals are inevitably led to reconsider two different alternatives when it comes to teaching English. Either they can continue to insist on competences learners will seldom achieve and which are unnecessary for future interactions; or, they can establish more realistic aims that are both reasonable and consistent with actual language use. According to Seidlhofer (2011b), the first case is founded on a pedagogy in which all English use should be consistent with native speaker competence; so, those who do otherwise are condemned to failure and stigmatized for interlanguage use. As for the second case, it abandons the requirement of native speaker competence as the main aim, focusing instead on developing learners' skills for them to exploit the linguistic resources available to communicate. The essence of this point of view is not then on “learning *a language* but learning *how to language*” (Seidlhofer 2011b: 197). That is, what is evaluated is not proximity to native speaker forms, but communicative function, how forms are used according to their functional efficacy. Learning to language therefore consists not only in developing communicative strategies, and negotiating and co-constructing meaning, but also on resorting to one's language, should it facilitate the process. Since it is impossible to know a whole language (even when one's own native tongue), the ultimate goal should be for language learners to become effective language users, by

making use of what they have learned, “to activate their capability for using, and therefore for further extending, their linguistic resource” (Seidlhofer 2011b: 198).

These issues are rather complex, especially when students in compulsory education are assessed according to parameters established by national and European policy makers. Nevertheless, regardless of the approach, the main aim should always be for language to engage with the learners’ reality, so that it can subsequently stimulate the learning process and lead to the use of the language. Alongside the learning process, learners and their needs are likewise central, so teachers inevitably ought to also adopt an alternative outlook when compared to what has been applied (e.g. following a pre-established textbook). As Seidlhofer (2011b) puts it:

The pedagogic significance of an ELF perspective is that it shifts the focus of attention to the learner and the learning process. It points to the need to reconsider how teaching might provide impetus and support for this process by attending to what learners do, not in terms of correctness and conformity to input, but as legitimate uptake in their learning and using. So an understanding of ELF leads not to the specification of ELF-like language content (although it might suggest some adaptation to priorities), but to the need for a change in teacher attitude. And this, in turn, would of course be likely to change the learners’ own attitude, with a positive effect on their motivation.

(Seidlhofer 2011b: 198-199)

In this sense, the conventional “hierarchical” approach customarily applied in language classrooms gives way to a more “leveled” approach, in which materials, methods and teaching models are created at a more local level (Canagarajah 2005)²². Not only does language then need to be reconsidered, but so do teaching materials, and the notions of culture and identity. Moreover, given the complexity and volatile nature of most communicative interactions in English, developing intercultural communicative competence skills is likewise an additional factor to be taken into consideration. These skills, however, can only be put into practice if language learners

²² Although Canagarajah (2005) addresses this issue of a pluricentric approach when referring to the World Englishes paradigm, it can also be specifically applicable to the pedagogic implications of ELF research given their several similarities – cf. Berns (2008), Dewey and Jenkins (2010), Jenkins (2006a) and Seidlhofer (2004).

become simultaneously language users, especially since it is only by using the language that they can master the process of “*linguaging*”²³.

2.4.1. From language learner to language user

Traditionally, the concepts of language learner and language user are deemed as two separate processes in which the latter is dependent on the former. The reason for this lies on the fact that in most situations, English is designed from a teaching perspective in which the goal is to guide learners towards native speaker competence, rather than focusing on the learning component. As the acronym ELT suggests, teaching is the main task usually taken into account, so subsequently it is the teacher who also assumes the lead role. Therefore, as the teacher, responsibility lies on teaching students the language, at a first stage, so that afterwards, at a second stage, they can use it properly according to pre-established patterns – Standard English.

This is usually the case from an EFL perspective, where language is seen as a product (the amount of knowledge learners are able to accumulate); however, when embracing an ELF perspective, both learning and using language are believed to be simultaneous rather than consecutive (Seidlhofer 2011b), as mentioned at the end of section 2.4. In other words, language learners are automatically language users, since they too exploit the linguistic resources available as well as their communicative potential. By doing so, they are triggering their potential “*to language*”.

According to Phipps (2006), when “*linguaging*”, the classroom context cannot be separated from how language is used in the outside world, as both will influence how a person “*languages*”; therefore, it is necessary to:

find a way of articulating the full, embodied and engaged interaction with the world that comes when we put the languages we are learning into action. We make a distinction between the effort of using languages that one is learning in the classroom contexts with the effort of being a person in that language in the social and material world of everyday interactions.
(Phipps 2006: 12)

²³ In brief terms, according to Seidlhofer (2011b), the process of “*linguaging*” consists in how learners use what they know of the language to communicate. For further consideration on this notion see section 2.4.1.

It is by exploiting the language that the learning process continues, as Swain (2006: 98) contends when he mentions that “*linguaging*” resides in “*making meaning and shaping knowledge and experience through language*”. It is part of what constitutes learning”. Similarly, Halliday (1975) also refers to what is known as the ability users have of “*how to mean*”; in other words, how to use the language they have acquired to continue learning, while at the same time expanding their language use.

Regardless of the learner/users’ competence according to native speaker standards on an interlanguage scale, what Phipps, Swain and Halliday have in common is the belief that learners/users have the necessary skills for putting the language they have acquired into effective communicative use; hence, providing for further learning according to their specific needs (e.g. academic, professional or social reasons).

Cook (1992) also takes on a similar approach, since she too prefers the term user to learner (in this case, L2 user and L2 learner); however, she believes an L2 user needs to be viewed and evaluated differently in comparison to other speakers. According to Cook, a “*user*” is able to stand between two languages and use both when appropriate. Therefore, L2 users are regarded as being multicompetent, with knowledge of at least two languages in their mind, in which each one will affect the other. In view of this situation, the ability to function through two languages cannot be measured according to monolingual native competence (Cook 1997), as the L2 user’s knowledge of the second language is not identical to that of a NS (the proper aim for an L2 user should be to speak the second language like an L2 user, and not like an L1 speaker) and because the L2 user also has other uses for language when compared to the monolingual speaker (L2 users employ a wider range of language functions for their different needs than a monolingual) (Cook 2005).

These issues obviously bring a lot to the table, as they question much of what has been established throughout the ELT profession, especially regarding how learners are viewed, and how they in turn view language and the learning process. As a result, there is an increasing awareness to explore how the language that is learnt is put into actual use, and the outcome of the consequences, especially concerning culture and identity, as well as how teaching materials adapt to the diverse use of the language.

2.4.2. From form to function: rethinking language, culture, identity and teaching materials

- ***Language***

In line with an EFL perspective, teachers are educated and trained according to the description and instruction of “proper” language, paying specific attention to the acquisition of phonological, morphological, syntactic and semantic forms; however, nowadays, there are other concerns that also demand at least as much attention as language correctness. For example, instead of striving for near-native proficiency of a prestigious variety, an ELF approach aims at developing pragmatic skills for communication, which in turn, may allow for some reconsideration in what concerns meeting the communicative needs of students, and focusing on functions of clarity in cross-cultural communicative scenarios (Modiano 2000).

In spite of what may seem as common sense for today’s multi-various English use, a significant amount of controversy in the ELT profession has emerged, as the results from ELF research pose a substantial change to longtime beliefs and practices, especially when considering the nature of approaches and methods, language syllabus, teaching materials and language assessment. These issues are especially unsettling for ELT practitioners, who believe ELF goes against everything they have learnt – the ideal NS and Standard English. The idea, however, is not to abandon traditional practices and ways of thinking, but rather to reconsider the assumptions on which these practices are based. Seidlhofer (2011b: 193) claims that ELF does not change the pedagogic issues inherent in ELT, but that instead it “changes the way we need to think about and act upon them”.

Since ELF research contributes to our understanding of the heterogeneous nature of English use in different communicative scenarios, when undertaking an ELF perspective in ELT pedagogy, both learners and teachers’ awareness towards the inherent variability of English language use is triggered. The main aim then is not to impose one paradigm over another, but for language professionals to make informed decisions about whether ELF is important for their own teaching environments.

- ***Culture***

Language and culture have always been intimately linked, being especially visible though since the nineteenth and twentieth centuries with the establishment of nations

in Europe and the rest of the world. This phenomenon contributed not only to conveying a uniform image of a country and its people, but also to ascertaining the idea of a common language and a shared cultural identity within a territory. This is particularly visible when someone is born, raised and educated within a certain environment; besides acquiring their mother tongue, they are also brought up within a generic set of beliefs and traditions, in addition to those that are specific to them.

Contrarily, the credence foreign language teachers' have placed on the cultures of a specific nation and on the authority of the nation state is a fairly recent phenomenon (Risager 2006, 2007). According to Byram (2008: 147), foreign language teaching in the twentieth century was marked in the first half by the study of high culture and in the second half by the ability to converse with NSs. In this sense, particular attention was given to "Big C" culture – the acknowledgement of art and literature as well as geographical, historical, political and social data.

Within the European ELT scenario of the 1980's, for instance, British Cultural Studies and/or American Studies were widely popular, with the perspective of NSs, their self-perception and symbolic systems being highly accentuated. Culture was seen from a holistic point of view that was generally apprehended in national terms (Risager 2007: 75) – one language and one culture (Tomalin and Stempleski 1993) – and which still continues in some EFL approaches.

Soon afterwards, with the proliferation in travel and the widespread use of information technology (e.g. the Internet), the 1990's became known as the era of internationalization. When compared to previous decades, there was a substantial increase in transnational personal contacts that was likewise verified within educational contexts. In the latter case, both students and teachers now had more opportunities of embarking on exchange programs either physically, on class trips, or virtually, via email and the Internet. So consequently, the teaching of culture became more oriented towards experienced culture and personal cultural encounters, rather than centered on national concepts, usually described as homogenous and stationary entities that could be straightforwardly described.

As learners are no longer acquiring language to join a single community, but are instead "shuttling between communities" (Canagarajah 2005: xxvi), the concept of culture within ELT has faced several reconsiderations. One major issue has been to delineate a proper definition for the notion of culture, an especially arduous task, as there are no boundaries nor any obvious target culture or cultural context for English.

Risager (2006:147) has even claimed that defining culture is an impossible task, when she states that “there has been more or less a consensus that it is not possible to lay down an ‘authorized’ definition of culture” that is valid in all settings.

Over half a decade ago in 1952, Alfred Kroeber and Clyde Kluckhohn (American anthropologists) critically reviewed the concepts and definitions of culture and at that time they already assembled a diverse list of roughly 156 definitions. Since then, many more definitions have been put forth based on several theories, ranging from cognitive theories (e.g. Goodenough 1964) to semiotic theories (e.g. Geertz 1973, Halliday 1978), socio-cultural theories (e.g. Vygotsky 1978, 1981; Engeström 2001, Lantolf 2000) and critical post-modernist theories (e.g. Kramsch 1993, 1998, 2002; Pennycook 2007, Risager 2006). For the case of this study, a post-modernist approach will be considered, with particular emphasis on the notions of cultural awareness and intercultural awareness in the context of foreign language teaching.

Considering cultural awareness, it comprises the knowledge and perception of the way cultures influence people’s attitudes, behaviors, beliefs, values and communication, in specific, in addition to those of others. In view of this, learners should understand the culturally based norms, behaviors and beliefs not only of their own culture, but of other cultures as well, as it is only by negotiating between diverse modes of communication and frames of reference (culturally based or otherwise) that they will achieve effective intercultural communication. Among those who have developed on cultural awareness in ELT are (in alphabetical order)²⁴:

- **Byram (1997)**, who considers cultural awareness and how learners assimilate it. Byram presents a thorough analysis of cultural awareness within the context of intercultural communicative competence (ICC), which considers the requirements, aims and obstacles that may arise when interacting across cultures. Since learning a language and culture are part of the same process, Byram (1997) created an organized scheme with the goals that compromise ICC – the five “savoirs”: “savoir être” (attitudes), “savoirs” (knowledge), “savoir comprendre” (skills of interpreting and relating), “savoir apprendre/faire” (skills of discovery and interaction) and “savoir s’engager”

²⁴ Each concept of cultural awareness will be very briefly described, since the aim is not to give an in-depth analysis of each one of them. At the end, the best approach for an ELF perspective will be chosen and further reflected on. For a more comprehensive analysis of the other concepts, references are given.

(critical cultural awareness/political education). With this framework, not only is the knowledge of culture important, but so are the skills required to understand, interact and employ that knowledge in intercultural contacts.

- **Guilherme (2002)**, who expands on Byram's notion of critical cultural awareness to develop an approach, which links language and culture to foreign language/culture education. In her opinion, foreign language/culture teaching plays a vital role in training learners for citizenship in today's intercultural world. According to Guilherme, critical cultural awareness involves a:

Reflective, exploratory, dialogical and active stance towards cultural knowledge and life that allows for dissonance, contradiction, and conflict as well as for consensus, concurrence, and transformation. It is a cognitive and emotional endeavor that aims at individual and collective emancipation, social justice and political commitment."

(Guilherme 2002: 219)

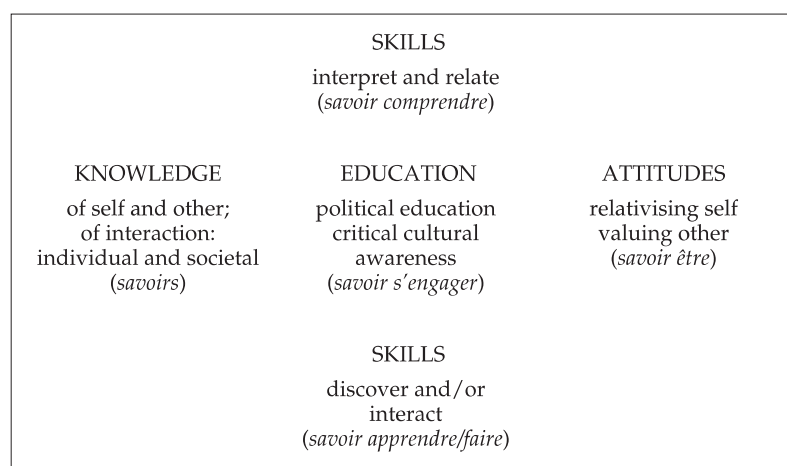
In order for this to be achieved, Guilherme takes on an interdisciplinary approach that considers critical pedagogy, cultural studies as well as intercultural communication.

- **Jones (1995, 2000)**, who associates cultural awareness with the awareness of others; this "otherness" implies the knowledge of another culture, which will be adapted and expanded on with the information and experiences users gather (1995). Jones later on takes this approach to concentrate on intercultural communication, in which he believes, "the relationship between using language for communication purposes and developing cultural awareness is fundamentally important" (Jones 2000: 164). In ELT it is the frequent contact then with another culture that fosters learners to explore and gain insight into others' cultural identities as well as their own; it is by doing so that they develop effective cultural awareness.
- **Littlewood (2001)**, who examines cultural awareness and its key role in intercultural communication. According to Littlewood, there are four levels of cultural awareness: 1) awareness of the common basis cultures share through collective knowledge and how this can vary among cultures; 2) comprehensive awareness of the common basis, by linking customs and cultural schemas of certain communities; 3) awareness of the likelihood for

divergence and miscommunication among some cultures; and 4) meta-awareness, which consists in being aware of the constraints of the other three levels and in being prepared to negotiate communicative meanings. In order to be culturally aware, all four levels need to be linked.

- **Risager (2004)**, who considers cultural awareness is associated with the increased interest in the cultural component of ELT. According to Risager, the main aspect of cultural awareness is reflexivity, which consists in the understanding of one's own culture as well as of the target culture, and the comparisons that can be made between both.
- **Tomalin and Stempleski (1993)**, who define cultural awareness as "sensitivity to the impact of culturally-induced behaviour or language use and communication" (1993:5). They also distinguish three fundamental aspects to achieve cultural awareness: awareness of one's own culturally induced behavior, awareness of others' culturally induced behavior and the ability to explain one's own cultural perspective.
- **Tomlinson and Masuhara (2004)**, who promote intercultural communication through cultural awareness in ELT classrooms. According to them, there is a difference between cultural knowledge and cultural awareness, being the former, "the information about the characteristics of our own and other people's cultures" and the latter, the "perceptions of our own and other people's cultures" (Tomlinson and Masuhara 2004: 6). Cultural knowledge, however, can be deceptive, stereotypical, static and/or outdated, since it is based on others' information. Cultural awareness, on the other hand, is more dynamic, flexible and interactive, especially as it derives from people's own indirect or direct experiences of culture. Different cultural encounters contribute then not only to facilitate the learning process, but also to develop and stimulate values, like equality and understanding to acquire cultural awareness.

Of the several reflections here presented on cultural awareness, Byram's framework (1997) is the one chosen, which seems to give a more detailed account within the context of ICC.



**Figure 2.1. Byram's five "savoirs"
for intercultural communicative competence (1997)**

As it is presented in Figure 2.1., the five "savoirs" propose a structure for curriculum design when teaching ICC as well as an established set of goals for assessment, in which the latter allow for a learner's development and establish a standard by which to measure his/her evolution towards those very goals. With this in mind, regardless of the scenario – be it in the classroom, for fieldwork or independent learning – learners are able to gain a deeper understanding of the importance of cultural information and its value in their cultural identity.

However, it is the fifth savoir ("savoir s'engager") that Byram views central for ICC, allowing learners to adopt a critical position to mediate between cultures. For that reason, cultural awareness cannot be solely centered on storing data on different cultures nor on adopting mono-cultural ethnocentric views; instead, it involves learning to appreciate multiple perspectives and acquiring skills, like critically evaluating the assumptions, behaviors, beliefs, norms and values of others with their own. By doing so, awareness is raised towards multiple identities and points of view within and across cultures. In intercultural communication, the aim is not to neglect one's cultural identity to abide by the ideal NS and its norms, but in contrast:

Be able to mediate between different communication modes present, be capable of understanding their own L1 cultural norms from objective perspectives, show a willingness to accept miscommunication, and be prepared initially to be viewed as a representative of the perceived cultural values of their L1, whether or not they subscribe to them.

(Baker 2009: 79)

As negotiated communication is the ideal, no single interlocutor can be deemed as the ideal model. This is well supported by Guilherme's (2002) approach to cultural awareness, as it focuses on the discordant nature of cultural identities and characterizations. Guilherme adopts a political stance, in which she believes language and culture education (as well as cultural awareness) play a crucial role in training learners for citizenship in today's intercultural world. To achieve critical cultural awareness, she argues that both should be integrated into teacher education programs, teaching practices and learning at all levels. By doing so, the outcome will be critical democratic citizens, who are prepared to move between cultures and languages in multicultural societies – very much in keeping with intercultural communication in ELF. In this case, similarly to ELF, language and culture are viewed as dynamic and transient concepts, where cultural identities are seen as negotiated and fluid.

Although cultural awareness distances itself from more conventional perceptions of teaching culture (as an established set of information focusing on a specific culture) there are still several limitations. For instance, its current descriptions have not entirely dealt with the correlation between cultures and languages, nor how cultural awareness may function in intercultural communication when in lingua franca situations. Moreover, to develop cultural awareness, the understanding of other cultures continues to be important, as it can only be cultivated with knowledge of other culturally based behaviors and values; the most complicated aspect that persists is choosing which culture to teach. Those normally chosen are viewed at a national level (e.g. UK, US or Australia), so students learn how to relate to and make comparisons between their own culture and the target culture. This, however, is an issue that cannot be applied in ELF situations within the Expanding circle, as the ultimate aim is not to focus on one sole group of speakers of English. Furthermore, as verified in the former definitions, cultural awareness has mainly been centered as a teaching approach (e.g. Byram 2008, Jones 1995) with particular emphasis placed on NS–NNS interactions, which once again cannot be applied to international scenarios.

With this in mind, instead of cultural awareness, what may be suggested for the Expanding circle is intercultural awareness, as cultural boundaries and groupings are less defined, and such awareness allows learners to negotiate the difficulties that may arise. Intercultural awareness can therefore be seen as an expansion of cultural awareness (and not as an opposition), where cultural influences have a tendency to be

more diverse, dynamic, evolving and happening in a “third place”²⁵ (Kramsch 1993).

Baker offers a basic definition for intercultural awareness, in which he considers it “a conscious understanding of the role culturally based forms, practices and frames of reference can have in intercultural communication, and an ability to put these conceptions into practice in a flexible and context specific manner in real time communication” (2009: 88). In order to understand this definition, Baker put together a list of twelve components (some taken from cultural awareness, especially Byram [1997]) clarifying what understanding involves, and the link between culture and language through English in intercultural communication:

1. An awareness of culture as a set of shared behaviours, beliefs, and values, this should lead to:
2. An awareness of the role culture and context play in any interpretation of meaning.
3. An awareness of our own culturally induced behaviour, values, and beliefs and the ability to articulate this.
4. An awareness of others’ culturally induced behaviour, values, and beliefs and the ability to compare this with our own culturally induced behaviour, values, and beliefs.
5. An awareness of the relative nature of cultural norms.
6. An awareness that cultural understanding is provisional and open to revision.
7. An awareness of multiple voices or perspectives within any cultural grouping.
8. An awareness of individuals as members of many social groupings including cultural ones.
9. A detailed awareness of common ground between specific cultures as well as an awareness of possibilities for mismatch and miscommunication between specific cultures.
10. An awareness of culturally based frames of reference, forms, and communicative practices as being related both to specific cultures and also as emergent and hybrid in intercultural communication.
11. An awareness that initial interaction in intercultural communication may be based on cultural stereotypes or generalizations but an ability to move beyond these through:
12. A capacity to negotiate and mediate between different emergent socioculturally grounded communicative practices and frames of reference based on the above understanding of culture in intercultural communication.

(Baker 2009: 88-89)

²⁵ The concept of “third place” presented by Kramsch (1993) refers to how second language communication functions in a “third place”, located somewhere in between the language user’s first language and culture and the target language and culture. For that reason, language users do not belong to any one of the groups and therefore are freed from having to abide to native forms. Moreover, Kramsch believes there is no one homogenous target culture to which language can be connected to.

Although this list may continue to be based on an idealized and theoretical concept, it summarizes the knowledge and skills necessary for lingua franca language users; in addition to contemplating how knowledge of certain cultures may remain useful (even though knowledge is no longer the end product of learning), while simultaneously trying to transcend single cultural frames of reference in intercultural interactions. In this sense, preference should be given to cultural content based on the environments learners are most likely to encounter; but, since it is impossible to predict future situations, it is crucial to develop a more widespread understanding of culture. The aim is basically to concentrate on the intercultural encounters themselves and analyze how culturally influenced behaviors are expressed, along with how these are negotiated between interlocutors. With each new encounter, speakers are continuously reassessing and changing their intercultural knowledge, awareness and skills; and by doing so, they can readjust towards a goal that is always changing and that will never be complete.

To conclude, it cannot be forgotten that intercultural awareness is likewise an essential component of ICC, and both are fundamental to develop on in ELT, especially when considering lingua franca scenarios (Knapp and Meierkord 2002), as it will be seen in section 2.4.3.

▪ *Identity*

The notion of identity has been inexorably linked to language and culture, especially since the establishment of nation states in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. As regards national languages, these are usually associated with cognitive, behavioral and affective connotations, in which the latter symbolizes the establishment of national identity along with national culture (Byram 2008). From this point of view, and in line with social-psychological inter-group approaches (e.g. Giles and Byrne 1982), identity and language/culture assume a one-to-one correlation, in which individuals are considered monolingual/monocultural beings confined within uniform and constrained communities. Pavlenko and Blackledge (2004: 5) further argue that this perspective “conceives of individuals as members of homogenous, uniform and bounded ethnolinguistic communities and obscures hybrid identities and complex linguistic repertoires of bi- and multilinguals living in a contemporary global world.”

ELT has traditionally followed this viewpoint, with the English that is taught in classrooms (usually the British variety in Europe) being generally associated with the image of what it is to be British. Among various examples that can be given, some of the most striking consist in, for instance, conforming to native speaker norms in terms of pronunciation, following or imitating certain beliefs or behaviors, or acquiring knowledge of how the British political or educational system functions. In other words, the aim is not only to sound British, but also to learn and acquire the habits and culture of NSs to successfully interact in native environments.

However, the current reality of the majority of English language exchanges is no longer centered on NSs as the target audience, but instead on NNSs, as is particularly relevant to ELF. Therefore, notions like accommodation, code-switching and language choice become central aspects in communicative situations, which in turn, contribute to breaking down the notion of identities as fixed categories. Thus, identities become both fluid as well as linguistically and socially constructed in communication, similarly to what was put forth by early interactional sociolinguistic approaches (Gumperz 1982, Le Page and Tabouret-Keller 1985). These approaches played an important part in linguistic identity research, as Omoniyi and White (2006) argue when considering Le Page and Tabouret-Keller's (1985) contribute: "[it] may be said to have triggered the wave of sociolinguistic research that began to view identity as produced within social interaction rather than as pre-existing categories to which people and things are assigned" (Omoniyi 2006: 13-14).

From a different viewpoint, Post-structuralist approaches brought as well a new perspective regarding the negotiation of linguistic identity and the effect power relations have on it (Heller 1982, 1992, 1995), yet another critical aspect for ELF interactions. According to Heller, language is understood as a way by which individuals influence others in social exchanges and as a symbolic resource linked to power. Pavlenko and Blackledge (2004) further argue that power relations may change along with the "game rules" that may need to be reassessed, so "new identity options come into play and new values are assigned to identity options, which have previously been legitimized or devalued by dominant discourses of identity" (Pavlenko and Blackledge 2004: 12-13). In the case of ELF, what has been verified is a distancing from native speaker ideologies, so as to favor the negotiation of options and accommodating to the different communities with which one identifies.

On a similar note, Ominiya (2006) refers to a list of six positions associated with ELF use, of which the most salient may be the existence of multiple identities:

1. that identity is not fixed;
2. that identity is constructed within established contexts and may vary from one context to another;
3. that these contexts are moderated and defined by intervening social variables and expressed through language(s);
4. that identity is a salient factor in every communicative context whether given prominence or not;
5. that identity informs social relationships and therefore also informs the communicative exchanges that characterize them;
6. that more than one identity may be articulated in a given context in which case there will be a dynamic of identities management.

(Ominiya 2006: 2-3)

In this sense, the selected language plays a central role in the establishment of the identity acknowledged at a specific moment within a certain community. Thus, individuals have many social identities, of which language option may vary accordingly²⁶. In the case of Europe, a European identity (associated with English or another language) could be additional to and not instead of national identity (associated with one's native tongue); not forgetting other related identities for academic, business or social settings. Wright particularly stresses the idea of plurality and multilayered identities in what concerns the need to adapt to different scenarios:

(...) national languages will not disappear although they may cease to play such an exclusive role in the various national spaces. (...) language practices are likely to follow political developments [therefore,] both linguistically and politically we may need to accustom ourselves to plurality: an acceptance of multilayered political identities and affiliations and personal bi- or multi-linguism which will allow us to be actors at all the levels where power is exercised.

(Wright 1999: 97)

For this reason, and as previously stressed by Guilherme (2002) and Byram (2008), education for intercultural citizenship is essential in ELT not only for learners to reconsider their current social identities, but also to be conscious of the range of their

²⁶ It is worth noting that not every researcher in the area follows this point of view regarding ELF and identity. House (1999, 2002, 2006), for instance, views ELF as a tool, as "language for communication", so therefore, "it can be distinguished from those other parts of the individual's repertoire which serve as 'language(s) for identification'" (House 2006: 90).

identities, and the groups to which they belong. In order for that to be achieved, learners need to be taught how to question and reflect upon the culture into which they have been socialized, especially regarding behaviors, meanings and values. By adopting an approach similar to this one, learners are able then to take on both “new identities and a sense of belonging to new communities of action” (Byram 2008: 189).

In this sense, and as it has been argued here, identity, like ELF, is malleable, motile and mutable (Mackenzie 2014). In view of this, identity cannot be considered as static, but instead, as constantly changing through time with different intensities, and adapting to the different communities people belong to throughout out their life. As Coulmas (2005) puts it:

(...) identities are not mutually exclusive but form a complex fabric of intersecting affiliations, commitments, convictions and emotional bonds such that each individual is a member of various overlapping groups with varying degrees of incorporation. Each individual's memberships and identities are variable, changing in intensity by context and over time.

(Coulmas 2005: 179)

Finally, the discussion on identity would not be concluded without referring to how language teachers view language and identity within their function as language educators and role models for their students. While national language teachers are responsible for ascertaining the connection between language and national identity, foreign language teachers, in contrast, play an important part in promoting an international identity and a sense of belonging to international communities (Byram 2008) – namely at a European level, for the case of this study.

Miller Marsh (2003) further acknowledges that both students and teachers play an important role in “crafting” their identities when they come together in the classroom to, so it is important to understand how teachers fashion their identities:

We are continually in the process of fashioning and refashioning our identities by patching together fragments of the discourses to which we are exposed (...) understanding how teachers fashion their identities is especially important, since much of the work that is done in the classrooms by teachers and their students involves the crafting of identities with and for one another.

(Miller Marsh 2003: 8-9)

Power issues, for example, can be one of the major factors in how language teachers shape their identities, especially when in many cases belonging to the target language community may grant teachers with access to resources. In addition, recognized language competence not only involves having better job opportunities, but also a higher salary and improved social status, which are conditions that make teachers strive for native speaker affiliation. However, the difference between teachers' chosen identity and their perceived identity are two issues that may come into conflict with other speakers of the language (native or non-native) as well as with students. The reason for this may have to do with the fact that teachers may perceive themselves as being native or non-native, while others deem otherwise (Inbar-Lourie 2005).

This identity gap may derive from several factors, such as the learning/teaching context, the teachers, the learners or the interaction between them (due to age, socioeconomic background, or race, just to name a few reasons). Besides these, Inbar-Lourie (2005) also refers to the importance of pronunciation, knowledge of the target language and its culture, self-efficacy in teaching different topics and insight as to who meets the requirements as a NS (e.g. Braine 1999, Medgyes 1999a).

Taking into consideration these issues, many teachers may strive to achieve a pronunciation that is as close as possible to that of a NS of Standard British or American English, and may as well make an effort to attain high language proficiency so that they are able to use the language for different purposes. In addition, being as familiar as possible to the target language culture (having preferably already been to that country and engaged with the culture themselves) is another factor that also contributes to boosting a teacher's confidence, demonstrating self-efficacy on the subject and perhaps even having them confused for a NS.

Conversely, positive attributes have also been associated with non-native English speaking teachers (NNESTs) who retain their identities (Kirkpatrick 2007b, Llurda 2005, Medgyes 1999b). Not only do these language professionals share a similar linguistic and cultural background with their students, but they have also gone through the same language acquisition process, enabling them to grasp the several difficulties that may arise. Since they are familiar with the educational, social and cultural norms of the students, NNESTs are also able to understand what is expected from them as teachers and what is expected from students as well.

All things considered, the close link between language education and identity is evident, and along with it, so is the possibility of opening up to new and different

identities. In this sense, as Wenger (1998) puts forth, language education may take a step further and go beyond simply attaining skills, so as to assume a transformative point, in which education issues are addressed:

Education in its deepest sense and at whatever age it takes place, concerns the opening up of identities – exploring new ways of being that lie beyond our current state ... Education is not merely formative – it is transformative. ... issues of education should be addressed first and foremost in terms of identities and modes of belonging and only secondarily in terms of skills and information.

(Wenger, 1998: 263)

▪ *Teaching Materials*

Over the years, ELT processes and teaching materials have gone through several changes regarding both grammar and culture. While in the 1940's and 1950's materials focused primarily on grammatical issues, in the 1960's there was a shift towards a more social perspective of language, which was afterwards followed in the 1970's by a sociolinguistic approach. Regarding the latter, Hymes (1972) presented several issues worth reflecting on when observing language use, namely possibility, feasibility, appropriateness and performance, which led to important implications for ELT. According to Hymes, standards of correctness should be observed in language use, as well as in issues of language appropriateness. As a result, textbooks began to be organized according to social situation and/or language function, in which particular emphasis was placed on the surface to language use and language appropriateness, while grammatical issues were camouflaged in the dialogs written to exemplify and practice grammatical structures (McKay 2012). Despite the time that has passed, this continues to be one of the most common practices to date in a great number of published ELT textbooks.

As for the way English has been denoted in teaching materials, Standard British English is in most cases the only central variety exhibited, especially when considering UK-based publishers. Upon analyzing a variety of textbooks, Gray (2010) emphasizes this issue in both course books and in listening materials, in addition to also indicating the lack of language diversity in those teaching materials:

[T]he representational repertoires in the coursebooks analyzed [...] suggested a high level of continuity in the representation of language –

namely, a focus on Standard British English, a privileging of the RP cluster of accents and relatively little representation of outer/expanding circle varieties of English.

(Gray 2010: 174)

On the topic of culture, the focus in curricula, reference materials and textbooks has traditionally lied, and in large part still does, on the literature, customs and holidays of English-speaking countries, highlighting the reality in the UK and the US, with occasional references to Australia or Canada (as referred to in the section 2.4.2.). In most cases, it can be argued that students are led to identify with an idealized and imagined community of English speakers that is portrayed by success, gender equality and an expanding cosmopolitanism (Gray 2010). One of the main motives for the longtime emphasis on the British and/or American culture is greatly owed to both countries' dominant role in the ELT book-publishing scene, with large publishers (e.g. Cambridge, Collins, MacMillan, Oxford and Pearson Longman) disseminating standardized notions of culture.

Irrespective of the approaches taken, teaching materials play a key role in ELT, and the current profusion of resources (in print and online²⁷) reveals quite well the extent to which both institutions and teachers take into account published work to mold their teaching methods and goals. Rubdy (2003), for instance, lists some of the advantages of using published materials of which are included issues like:

- They offer a feeling of security and self-confidence in teachers;
- They provide certainty and structure, which promotes a sense of safety in in-classroom contact;
- They are presented as a “direction map” for teachers and learners to follow;
- Since they are usually designed by experienced teachers, their development can be more consistent with existing theories and practices;

²⁷ With the increasing access to the Internet worldwide, many have been the websites dedicated to ELT. In addition to institutionalized websites, such as the British Council's *LearnEnglish* website (<http://learnenglish.britishcouncil.org/>) or the BBC's website *TeachingEnglish* (in association as well with the British Council at <https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk>), which both carry great prestige; many have been the websites which collect and share teaching materials from ELT teachers worldwide. Some of these websites include iSLCollective.com, the Internet Second Language Collective (<http://en.islcollective.com>), Busy Teacher (busyteacher.org) or ESL Printables (www.eslprintables.com), among many others.

- And they may also serve as agents of change by persuading teachers to adjust their traditional teaching approaches.

Nonetheless, assuming an exclusively textbook oriented approach nowadays does not quite meet the expectations of the majority of the communicative interactions. In addition, due to the increasing number of English speakers, especially when it comes to macroacquisition²⁸ (Brutt-Griffler 2002), various implications may emerge in the development of materials, especially when the goal should be to also adapt an international perspective. In view of these issues, the question that persists then is: in what way can teachers adapt their materials and curriculum so as to undertake a perspective more compatible with ELF use?

To begin with, and as previously mentioned, English is now more varied than ever before, and it is especially through contemporary literature that distinct English features are visible in grammatical norms and lexical use (many of which have been studied, such as V.S. Naipaul or J.M. Coetzee). However, when it comes to observing these variations in ELT and in teaching materials, much less has been written on the issue. If one of the main goals in ELT is to prepare learners for intercultural communicative communication, it is essential resources at least recognize the existing diversity of English standards. One suggestion, which may help support this point of view, is to make reference to something that is familiar to the students. In the case of Portugal, for instance, Portuguese is also an international language with a number of different varieties (e.g. European Portuguese, Brazilian Portuguese or Angolan Portuguese); so, teachers may take advantage of this reality and explain how English is similarly structured. In practice, this exercise may involve taking a selection of different texts from authors who write or speak in English, so as to establish an understanding of how language is structured differently around the world. Despite this being a useful and valuable approach, many of the times it is often neglected since textbook oriented classes are mainly centered on a single standard variety.

In what concerns culture, and as it has already been stressed, the majority of textbooks are largely centered on the two main cultures, with occasional references to other Inner circle countries (e.g. the Australian or Canadian cultures) and very rarely to other regions (e.g. Europe, Asia or Africa in general). As a result, practices like

²⁸ Macroacquisition denotes those who acquire English as an additional language in their own country, who from there on use the language either for international communication or for intranational use.

these may place local teachers' credibility into question, as they may be unfamiliar with certain native cultural aspects in textbooks. When taking on an ELF perspective though, teachers are believed to have more freedom in what concerns culture, as they are more familiar with their own particular cultural context, which should also be respected (McKay 2012). Furthermore, culture is not solely restricted to iconic symbols; it is much more than that. As Wandel (2003) comments on the importance of teaching materials (in this case related to textbooks), prompting dialog and reflecting on attitudes/behaviors are two key factors that should be encouraged:

Textbooks should contain material that allows and provokes diverging opinions and discussions on cultural stereotyping. At the same time, some attitudes and behaviours should be developed: the feeling of empathy, the ability to change perspectives, to recognise (the reasons for) misunderstandings and to find ways to overcome them.

(Wandel 2003: 73-74)

The perception of ELF then is to focus on how individuals communicate with each other in specific settings, therefore the need to expand on what has already been referred to as intercultural awareness. In this sense, not only does the cultural environment need to be taken into account, but so do the interlocutors involved in the communicative act (e.g. age, race, social status, religious beliefs, and so on), along with their body language and context.

Context is especially important in teaching materials, as the interactions portrayed mainly focus on native speaker contacts, with some examples of NS-NNS interactions, and only in very scarce situations with instances of non-native communication. This is not only true for materials created in English-speaking countries, but also in those from Expanding circle countries. In order to counteract this reality, McKay (2012) argues that ELT teachers may complement the dialogs and texts in the course books with their own written texts and dialogs portraying NNS-NNS interactions. By doing so, not only are they validating the existence of a broader diversity of English users across cultural and geographical boundaries, but they are also establishing the context for assessing how individuals work towards clarification and establish connections when gaps in language knowledge arise; all in all, which contribute to students' understanding of intercultural interactions.

An alternative tactic regarding materials for both teachers and students may be a “classroom-based social research” approach, as suggested by Peirce (1995). It not only aims at students engaging in a collaborative project by gathering examples of L2 interactions in their local community (be it person-to-person contact or English on the web), but teachers also provide audio examples of their own. By adopting a similar practice, learners can contact with other L2 speakers from an array of social and cultural backgrounds, which would be impossible if restricted to the classroom and textbook.

Another pressing issue in teaching is to reconsider the use of authentic materials. It is of course an essential issue in the language learning process; however, the term “authentic” in classroom contexts should not refer to materials developed for non-pedagogic reasons in other communities of users (e.g. a restaurant menu from the UK); instead, it should represent texts that assume a specific communicative purpose for a group, and with which that particular group can “engage with and create discourse around for the purpose of furthering their language learning” (McKay 2012: 80). In view of this, when selecting which materials should be used, teachers should reflect on issues like: 1) whether the materials are appropriate and motivating for those learners, 2) if they promote the development of language proficiency, and 3) if they are applicable for the particular classroom and social context (McKay 2012).

On the whole, when implementing an international perspective of English into classrooms, much may be done in practical terms in this area, as Matsuda and Duran (2012) suggest. According to both, a variety of concrete lessons and activities can be applied at different language levels, ranging from developing awareness and contact with World Englishes, expanding on different varieties and language attitudes, and using local creativity, culture and writing exercises. With everyday materials (e.g. worksheets, Internet, dictionaries, a white board, a computer or a projector) teachers can implement new activities, proving how change is possible without a textbook.

Lastly, as already verified, these approaches seek to link classroom language learning with actual language use outside of the school environment. That said, the learning process only begins within the teaching space, and continues afterwards outside when contacting with different language users.

2.4.3. From communicative competence to intercultural communicative competence: skills and strategies

When employing a foreign language approach, achieving native communicative competence is usually the end goal and as such, any utterance is measured according to native speaker norms (formal correctness). ELF, however, believes the concept of correctness should be replaced by appropriateness (functional effectiveness), in order to attain “global inclusiveness and egalitarian licence to speak in ways that meet diverse local needs” (Seidlhofer 2001: 135).

Considering these two perspectives, the notion of communicative competence and how it has developed from two linguistic traditions may be here reconsidered: Hymes (1962, 1972) and his ethnography of communication, and Halliday (1978) and his systemic-functional paradigm. Although these contributions are distinct, they both complement the use of communicative competence as a theoretical construct in WE studies (Berns 2006), and henceforth in ELF studies as well.

Even though it is attributed to Hymes the concept of communicative competence as a linguistic construct in the early 1970's, John R. Firth (1930) had some forty years before already underlined the importance of “context of situation”. According to him, “context of situation” describes the individual communicative competence of each speaker that has evolved in non-native settings. Berns (2006: 719) sums up Firth's view by stating that it is “only through inclusion of context of situation as a parameter for determining what communicative competence means do the pluralistic nature of a language and the independent existence and the dynamic creative processes of non-native varieties come into focus”. It is this connection of the cultural and social bases of communication that later influenced Hymes and Halliday.

Firstly, it was Hymes who coined the term communicative competence as the ability users have to choose what to say as well as when and how to say it, being the context in which they are situated (both cultural and social) that influences their linguistic performance. As Hymes (1980) states regarding each person's performance, “social life shapes communicative competence.” In this sense, communicative competence is associated more with an intrapersonal orientation that is connected with a system of internalized rules (Berns 2006).

Halliday (1978) is contrarily centered on the interpersonal element of language and potential as a social concept, examining the role of social context and

the possibilities it presents to language users for “doing things with language”. In addition, Halliday refers to the options a context offers as “meaning potential”, the choices (be them pragmatic, phonological, lexical or syntactic) language users have to express, interpret and negotiate meaning. However, it is important not to forget that the appropriate local choices and selections made by users in particular contexts are based on the limitations of their systemic knowledge. According to Halliday and Mathiessen (2004: 23), “a language is a resource for making meaning, and meaning resides in systemic patterns of choice” that are available at a given moment.

Taking into account the diversity of the different linguistic and cultural backgrounds in lingua franca use, communicative competence needs to take an additional step and also inevitably focus on intercultural sensitivity, an issue lacking in the two previous cases. Not only does the cultural background of each interlocutor need to be considered, but so does the cultural context of the interaction and even the cultural cues carried by the language used, as is stated by Mauranen (2005):

The contexts of use lingua franca speakers experience typically involve interaction with people from highly diverse backgrounds. This requires constant intercultural sensitivity to a degree not normally experienced by mono- or even bilingual speakers in their native languages.

(Mauranen 2005: 274)

In this sense, a global definition of communicative competence at an international level may be that competence in communication is a holistic, global and international notion involving several interconnecting components of usable knowledge, as well as the skills and abilities needed to put these into practice within a range of communities and types of community (Nunn 2007: 43). This competence not only includes skills in written and spoken language, but also creativity together with adaptive skills like the ability to negotiate meaning with people from varied backgrounds.

Of the several interconnecting components for communicative competence at an international level, Nunn (2007: 41) refers to the following:

- Multiglossic – interlocutors need to be sensitive to diverse identities and to be skilled in conveying their own identity intelligibly;
- Strategic – in ELF interaction communication strategies are essential two-way components of intercultural communication;

- Linguistic – linguistic competence in at least one variety of English is necessary in order to communicate;
- Pragmatic/discourse – the ability to adjust language to context and solve differences of background knowledge, as a skill which requires training;
- Intercultural – being able to adjust to unpredictable multicultural situations rather than having knowledge of only one other culture.

By disempowering the concept of “native-like” proficiency, both ELT and teacher education can center their attention on skills and procedures that are advantageous for ELF interactions. Jenkins (2000), for example, mentions several specific communicative strategies and accommodation skills characteristic of ELF communication, of which are included: drawing on extralinguistic cues, gauging interlocutors’ linguistic repertoires, supportive listening, signaling non-comprehension in a face-saving way, asking for repetition, paraphrasing, self-repair, confirmation, and the clarification of requests that allow participants to check and monitor understanding, among other skills (Mauranen 2006, Seidlhofer 2003). Furthermore, it cannot be forgotten that the exposure to a wide range of varieties of English as well as to a multilingual/comparative approach, also play an essential part in facilitating the acquisition of communicative abilities.

In realistic terms, total competence is obviously beyond anyone’s range, as already specified; however, competent users should be able to use the components and skills/strategies referred to, to compensate for weaknesses in one particular area, with the knowledge or skill in another. One such example may consist in adopting a variety of English that is intelligible to other users and which can be adapted to the needs of intercultural communication, especially when in different contexts there may be users with several levels of competence and with very distinct needs. Nunn (2007) reiterates once more that there is no single intelligible global standard, but even so, language users share enough for effective communication:

No one global standard will fit all users and communities but all competent users will have enough in common to be able to negotiate norms and interim norms in order to communicate successfully within and between particular communities and sub-communities.

(Nunn 2007: 43)

Keeping this in mind, a Systemic-functional approach to ELT may be particularly useful for taking a step forward and developing intercultural communicative competence (ICC), as language is viewed as a social resource where meanings are negotiated in social contexts and by social beings. It not only provides descriptors of how a language actually functions, but it also presents ways of helping learners to understand these uses; therefore, instead of focusing on the intended *products* when learning a language, it centers its attention on the *process* of learning in itself.

To conclude, ICC is a central educational aim for language learning and teaching (Byram 1997), as communicative practices and strategies are becoming increasingly more important in both intra- and international communication (Kirkpatrick 2007b; Jenkins *et al.* 2011). By mastering and/or being aware of certain skills/strategies, language users are able to take a critical stance when confronting others from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds; however, it must not be forgotten that there will always be certain aspects that are “unreachable”. Despite all this, Guilherme (2002) argues that intercultural speakers will always have a clear advantage over others:

The *critical* intercultural speaker takes critical advantage of the world opened wide to her/him by appreciating the different narratives available, by reflecting upon how they articulate, how they are positioned in terms of each other and how their positions affect their perspectives. S/he tries to prevent deep-seated prejudices from influencing her/his judgments of other cultures, for example by not taking an ethnocentric evaluation of them whatever her/his personal response to them may be. S/he is suspicious of consumerist attitudes promoted by the culture industry and is critical about its role as a homogeniser. S/he recognises that it is not possible to be in control of all factors in an interaction nor possible therefore to avoid tension and misunderstanding totally but that it is possible to deal with them in a friendly manner if one is very aware that there are unknown and unreachable areas in any intercultural encounter.

(Guilherme 2002: 129)

2.5. Bringing about change to ELT

As it has been presented so far, traditional teaching methods and approaches applied in ELT classrooms have mainly focused on conforming to native speaker norms. These norms have consequently been taken for granted as the proper aim for learning,

having never been questioned whether they are the most adequate. As a result, native-like proficiency has been determined as the idealized target, while those who fall short of that fail to achieve the ultimate goal. ELF, on the contrary, suggests a new way of thinking about English and what implications it might have for how English as a subject may be defined.

It is worth noting that the aim of this study is not to advocate for a completely innovative and superior pedagogic model, but to be able to reflect on a new approach, which goes hand in hand with how English is currently being used, and how it can also be incorporated into classrooms.

In order for change to be visible in classrooms though, language teachers are required to adapt and adjust their pedagogical practices, namely beginning with their attitudes, methodologies and teaching materials. For many teachers this means changing and adjusting to a new and unfamiliar reality, which may subsequently lead to a feeling of uncertainty and insecurity, in a practice they thought they had already understood. It is only normal then for professionals to resist change at the beginning, especially when considering experienced language practitioners. For that reason, it is vital that these issues be discussed right from the beginning in pre-service teacher education programs at universities. The university functions here as a bridge that connects both sides of the issue; on the one hand, what is being done at a theoretical research level and, on the other, the reality of what is happening in language classrooms. It is these imperative issues that will be further discussed.

2.5.1. Teachers' resistance

An ELF approach can only be deemed as advantageous when those more closely concerned with the issue see it as such, namely language teachers, language learners and NNSs; without that, change is very improbable. As it has already been put forth, research findings in ELF present considerable challenges to existing beliefs and practices, and any changes that are to be applied to curricula or that require the reconsideration of pedagogic practices often provoke controversy and can be especially unsettling (Roberts 1998). The main determining factors for these reactions have to do with teachers' attitudes towards ELF and their own perceptions of its implications. Attitudes and identity issues are some of the most complex issues for language teachers to deal with (Jenkins 2007), especially since they hold very strong

beliefs regarding their roles as teachers and the classroom aims; in the latter case, this usually consists in guiding students towards the established goals (usually native speaker norms) and assessing their achievements accordingly (Mauranen 2012).

When it comes to shifts in theory, NNESTs are particularly averse to change (Borg 2003), especially when issues on new and innovative knowledge about language are discordant with former perceptions (Bartels 2005). In this group, the notion of a standard continues to be a strongly held desire by many, as it has been verified in previous research where the NS assumes the default position (Sifakis and Sougari 2005; Watson Todd and Pojanapunya 2009).

Medgyes (1999b) was actually one of the first to reflect on the most evident differences between native and non-native teachers' attitudes towards teaching language. In the case of NNESTs, at the time it was already verified that this group is more liable to focus on accuracy, form, formal register and grammatical rules. They also tend to favor controlled tasks and frontal teaching, and greatly rely on the implemented textbook. There is a stronger inclination as well for this group to make use of their L1 more, and to turn to translation when unable to convey the message clearly in English. Conversely, Medgyes noticed that NESTs are usually more centered on colloquial register, fluency, meaning and oral skills. They are also more open to group and pair work, and use a wider variety of materials beyond the textbook. Another aspect is the fact that NSs are more tolerant when marking mistakes, as more importance is given to the message rather than to form.

In Reves and Medgyes (1994) similar beliefs are found when comparing both groups of teachers. NNESTs, on the one hand, are associated with being "preoccupied with accuracy, [and] more formal features of English" (Reves and Medgyes 1994: 360). They may also lack fluency and more sophisticated semantic use, which in turn leads them to overuse formal registers, as they are uncertain of proper language use. NESTs, on the contrary, are found to use "more real, [and] unhampered natural language" (Reves and Medgyes 1994: 360) when teaching. Even so, their non-native counterparts are regarded as better qualified, since they have a greater understanding of the English language.

In addition, in a study examining NESTs and NNESTs in Hong Kong, Tsui and Bunton (2000) were able to conclude that, when looking for dependable and reliable information, there is an overall preference on the part of language professionals for external (native speaker) sources. Moreover, since the great majority

of NNESTs, either directly or indirectly, believe the NS is the source of authority, these professionals tend to “cite codified sources and other sources as supporting evidence before putting forward their own views” (Tsui and Bunton 2000: 301).

In another case study, Jenkins (2005) observed NNESTs’ attitudes towards accent, and of those teachers questioned, everyone demonstrated high regard for native English accents and native speaker identity. However, when interrogated about non-native accents, that same group of teachers expressed a sense of inferiority towards these types of accents, their own included.

With these findings in mind, Llurda (2009) refers to NNESTs’ experiences and attitudes as loosely related to that of the Stockholm syndrome, especially when today’s society continues to give great importance to NSs not only as norm providers, but also as the instinctive and innate choice in language selection. As a result, NNESTs have come to accept and believe attitudes, formulations and proposals that consign them to, as Llurda refers, “mere spectators and at times executioners of native speaker (NS) norms” (2009: 119). Cook (2002, 2005) goes even further and refers to how these language educators are being reduced to perpetual language “learners” and consequently, deprived of recognition as legitimate language “users”. In cases like these, the essential aim of the learning process is centered on how to imitate native speaker models, rather than actually learning how to function with the language.

Attitudes similar to these only further contribute to accentuate the NS/NNS divide, the division between “us” and “them”, in which “they” (NNSs) are victims of discrimination. The reason for this lies on NNESTs having usually dedicated a great part of their life to pursuing an unassailable native model; however, they will always be restrained as “outsiders”, with a secretly developed admiration for something they cannot obtain. Should they persist with this viewpoint, NNESTs will continue looking for natives, who can affirm their authority and give a small sign of appreciation. In most cases though, this can result in them quietly despising their own non-nativeness, and subsequently bringing about a lack of self-confidence in ELT (Llurda 2009).

Unfortunately, this is the way many teachers have been taught, as teacher education programs have typically taken on a monolithic approach to language, making the NS the undisputed model and object of study, which teachers inevitably learn to follow. According to Llurda (2004), the only way then to empower NNESTs is to place EIL at the center stage, so as to set these teachers “in the right context for conducting their teaching task without having first to prove their competence, and so

discard all possible doubts and criticisms by students, program administrators, and fellow teachers” (Llurda 2009: 122).

In truth, when teachers’ authority is questioned, it is difficult to look confident (especially in front of a class), so the question that remains is: how can teachers’ self-confidence be enhanced so that they are open to a new outlook? Seriously concerned with this, Llurda (2009) proposes three key aspects to improve teachers’ resistance and self-confidence, as well as their appreciation for their own status as ELT teachers.

First of all, Llurda believes that teacher programs should have a strong language component as well as develop teaching skills. He goes on to argue that teachers will only feel comfortable if they have the chance to develop their language skills, and that can only be done if they are exposed to the target language long enough, so as to feel relaxed and comfortable with it.

Secondly, it is important to develop a high level of critical awareness when it comes to reflecting on what it means to teach a language. In order to achieve this, it is suggested that the implications of teaching English as an international language be considered, basing discussions on works already published, for instance Jenkins (2007), Kirkpatrick (2007b) or Seidlhofer (2011b), to name just a few. As Llurda mentions, this is crucial for “developing a critical sense of the complexities inherent in the teaching of such a global language as English” (Llurda 2009: 130). Moreover, he also comments on the need to employ new approaches in teacher education programs, by making reference to Sifakis’ transformative approach (2007). According to Sifakis, a transformative approach is essential for teachers to “open up to change by realizing and transforming their worldviews and perspectives about ESOL [English for Speakers of Other Languages] teaching” (Sifakis 2007: 370)²⁹.

Lastly, Llurda refers to NNSs becoming actively involved in discussions about EIL/ELF and “their own role in promoting a vision in which it is acceptable and desirable to use different non-native varieties of the language” (2009: 130). It is only by having teachers who actively engage in debates on this topic as well as on the renationalization of the language (McKay 2003) that a new paradigm in ELT can emerge and come to have an effective presence in language classrooms.

With these guidelines, NNESTs may learn to resist less to change, feel liberated from the NS/NNS divide, and acknowledge their role as rightful owners of

²⁹ For a more in depth reflection on Sifakis’ transformative approach (2007, 2009) to teacher education programs, see Chapter 5.

the language, who are able to comprehend the diversity of language in ELT:

If a teacher can (1) personally experience the diversity of English language usage, (2) reflect critically on language learning and teaching and (3) perceive the current turn in society towards multilingualism and the international acceptance of English as a language for international communication, rather than as a culturally loaded national language, they will successfully overcome the paradox of being denied the right to own the language and still love it. They will become rightful and powerful free users and teachers of English as an International Language.

(Llurda 2009: 131)

Considering all that has been put forth regarding teachers' beliefs and resistance towards what is new, it is important that these professionals become actively involved when it comes to understanding different paradigm shifts, which rebalance their attitudes, beliefs and knowledge (Guilherme 2002); by doing so, they are dynamically taking part in a pedagogy of empowerment that will never end. The place where this is (or should be) most visible is in teacher education programs, where teacher trainees are in the fortunate position of cooperating in both academic research and having the opportunity to put into practice what they have learned with students in classrooms.

In this sense, teacher education programs are crucial in developing future teachers' perspectives on ELT, taking into consideration not only their own attitudes, but also how they are going to confront different challenges. With this in mind, the next section will address the importance of introducing change in these programs and what exactly can be done.

2.5.2. Introducing change in teacher education programs

Being it the international language that it is, English has greatly changed, being adapted and appropriated by all who use it. Reconsideration is thus necessary for how English as a subject has been perceived and how such alternative conceptualizations also need new directions in language teaching and in teacher education.

The main point is not to promote an entirely different pedagogical paradigm, but to propose how understanding ELF can contribute to teachers and trainers rethinking English, how it is taught and its implications as a subject. If teachers are to become "reflective practitioners", these are relevant issues to reflect upon in teacher

courses. Seidlhofer (2011b) therefore believes that reevaluating the assumptions on which traditional ways of thinking and practices are based on is vital, because, without critical consideration, it is unfair to accept or deny any idea, either new or established.

In the case of English as a subject, it has traditionally been designed from a teaching perspective instead of from a learning standpoint. In the former case, the undisputed belief is that the pedagogical aim is to point learners in the right direction, namely towards a native speaker competence that is measured according to accumulated knowledge; while in the latter case, attention is given to the process of “linguaging”, of evaluating one’s ability to use and to exploit the language’s communicative potential. In this case, however, learning and using language should both be deemed as essential issues of the same process.

Even though it may be easier to follow Standard English in curricula and when measuring outcomes, teachers and teacher education programs should not let institutional restrictions prevent them from discussing pressing topics of pedagogic principle, nor reflecting on the authority or significance of conventional ways of thinking.

Although ELF may not be a part of mainstream ELT, several have been the scholars dedicated to descriptive ELF research and associating these results with local pedagogical concerns. A number of different publications have come out in recent years that have devoted particular attention to the expanding critical awareness of the pedagogical implications of ELF, namely in published volumes (Gnutzmann and Intemann 2008, Jenkins 2007, Kirkpatrick 2010b, Mackenzie 2014, Phan Le Ha 2008, Seidlhofer 2011b, Sharifian 2009) or in journals (*International Journal of Applied Linguistics* – Dewey 2007, Sifakis 2007 and Kirkpatrick 2007a; *JELF – Journal of English as a Lingua Franca*; *World Englishes* 28/2). The proliferation of published material plays here an important part in acknowledging new ways of thinking and of reflecting on ELT, given that many also apply a practical approach to the issue.

Seeing that pre-service teacher education programs³⁰ at universities combine both academic viewpoints with practical teaching experience, this seems like the ideal

³⁰ Considering the study developed in this dissertation, the main focus here will be on pre-service teacher education programs rather than on in-service training.

place to promote dialog among trainees, cooperating teachers³¹ and university professors on a number of issues, such as language syllabus, teaching materials, approaches and methods, language assessment and finally, one's own knowledge base (Jenkins, Cogo and Dewey 2011), all of which have far reaching implications in language teacher education.

For that reason, more attention should be paid to the education of teachers, and not only to the training, so as to bestow future teachers with the “essential understanding of the nature of language and its use that underpins their pedagogic practices and that would enhance their status as well informed and self-reliant professionals” (Seidlhofer 2011b: 204). In other words, instead of being prepared for a limited set of pre-formulated teaching methods in educational contexts, teacher trainees should receive a more widespread education which allows them to assess the implications of ELF use for their own ELT environments and adjust their teaching to the specific needs of their students. According to Seidlhofer (2004), teacher education is crucial, especially in what concerns grasping the importance of language variation, identity and intercultural communication in different educational contexts:

Such teacher education would foster an understanding of the processes of language variation and change, the relationship between language and identity, the importance of social-psychological factors in intercultural communication and the suspect nature of any supposedly universal solutions to pedagogic problems.

(Seidlhofer 2004: 228)

In this sense, there are no single strategies that can be applied in all learning situations, being this one of the major issues teacher education courses should focus on. Although it may generate in teachers and trainees a sense of insecurity and lack of self-confidence, as Llurda (2009) mentions, there are several issues that can help counteract that feeling, as already previously stated³², namely having a strong language component so that they can feel at ease when using the language, acquiring a high level of critical awareness and actually participating in debates on ELF.

Kirkpatrick (2007b) also lists several practical skills he views as key

³¹ The cooperating teacher is an ELT teacher, who plays a critical role as both the teacher trainee's model and mentor during their traineeship, in addition to also having an influence over their learning experience and establishing a connection with the trainee's supervisor and the university.

³² See section 2.5.1. for a more detailed explanation to Llurda's key aspects on developing teachers self-confidence.

requirements for teacher programs in Outer and Expanding circles, of which particular emphasis is given to grasping the context of learners, presenting a suitable model for them, being able to assess the teaching materials used and evaluating the specific needs of students. In this sense then Kirkpatrick believes teachers should:

- be multilingual and multicultural and ideally know the language of their students and understand the educational, social and cultural contexts in which they are working;
- either be able to provide an appropriate and attainable model for their students or, if they speak another variety, understand that the local variety of English is an appropriate and well-formed variety that is not inferior to their own;
- understand how different varieties of English have developed linguistically and the ways in which they differ phonologically, lexically, grammatically, rhetorically and culturally;
- understand how English has developed in specific contexts and how it has spread across the world;
- understand the role(s) of English in the community and how these interrelate with other local languages;
- be able to evaluate ELT materials critically to ensure that these do not, either explicitly or implicitly, promote a particular variety of English or culture at the expense of others;
- be able to evaluate the specific needs of their students and teach towards those needs; and
- be prepared to contribute to the extra-curricular life of the institution in which they are working.

(Kirkpatrick 2007b: 195)

More recently, Seidlhofer (2011b) dedicated a section of her volume to ELF and teacher education, where several suggestions to enrich teacher education are put forth at both a macro- and micro-level. At a macro-level, for instance, Seidlhofer refers to how there already exists a large amount of work on the description of language and communication that can be “drawn on and combined into truly ‘empowering’ teacher education curricula” (Seidlhofer 2011b: 205), in addition to other relevant publications dedicated as well to language awareness, language variation and accommodation. The main point is not to review all of the published material, but to select and adapt those with particular pedagogical significance for a certain context. At a micro-level, there could be programs in which prospective educators are cultivated towards an understanding of how the language they are studying/will be teaching can be incorporated into a broader framework of communication. Therefore,

instead of focusing on the proficiency of language forms, preference can be given to developing an awareness of the nature of language itself and its creative potential.

If teacher education programs were to take all these issues into account (e.g. Seidlhofer 2004, 2011b; Kirkpatrick 2007b; Llurda 2009), there would be a clear emphasis on highlighting process over form, awareness over certainty, and consider knowledge of language and knowledge about language as equally imperative – all of which are central when considering “communication should never be expected to be ‘complete’ or ‘perfect’” (Seidlhofer 2011b: 205), regardless of the language.

Ultimately, self-awareness and dialogue are two fundamental matters for teacher programs aimed at fostering the development and preparation of critical language professionals. Guilherme (2002) argues favorably for prospective teachers to reflect on their own (inter)cultural knowledge and experiences, as they have initiated a never-ending process, which they will continue to pursue in collaboration with their students, constantly exploring different possibilities. As she puts it:

Teacher development programmes designed to prepare prospective and practising teachers for critical intercultural competence also need to make room for student/teachers to reflect on and discuss their (inter)cultural knowledge (what they know, how they know, and what they need to know), their (inter)cultural experiences (and the possibilities of having them), and their practices (as teachers, as learners, and as human beings and democratic citizens).

(Guilherme 2002: 217)

All things considered, change, in the end, can have an actual effect if it is firstly implemented with future language professionals in teacher education programs, so that afterwards they can take with them the knowledge acquired and implement those changes in classrooms. Teacher trainees (as well as teacher trainers) are therefore in the unique situation of linking both realities – universities and schools – hopefully contributing to new and innovative outlooks.

2.6. Summary and final remarks

This chapter began by providing a chronological outline of foreign language teaching in general, for readers to understand how it has evolved through time, and how it can then be compared to the specific case of English.

English has distinguished itself from other foreign languages, in the sense that it is currently used by and large as a lingua franca in many different international situations. Therefore, when taking into consideration its distinctive sociolinguistic situation with overlapping boundaries, to refer to English solely as a foreign language is at present inadequate. For that reason, English language and ELT were here reconsidered, especially from a general historical view until nowadays.

Due to its current pervasiveness, many have been the scholars advocating for a new outlook in terms of language use and language teaching, especially as a foreign language approach seems outdated for most communicative scenarios, particularly when most interactions take place between NNSs. ELF therefore emerges as an alternative view to add on to the already established notion of English in ELT.

Considering this issue, the differences between EFL and ELF were afterwards considered in vital areas, such as language, culture, identity and teaching materials, all of which imperative when establishing a curriculum. Moreover, ICC was likewise discussed as an essential component not only for successful communication, but also as an integrated element of ELT and of teacher education courses as well.

However, the fact that ELF constitutes an innovative and alternative stance causes in many (prospective) teachers a sense of insecurity, which may consequently lead to a feeling of inferiority when compared to their native speaker counterparts. Bearing this in mind, it is imperative to respond to these matters. Not only do NNESTs' confidence levels need a boost, but so do (pre-service) teacher programs.

Unfortunately, as it was mentioned, initial teacher preparation as a whole continues to foster a monolithic approach to language, construing competence according to native speaker linguistic forms, which in turn contradict the reality of most contexts where English is learnt, taught and used. For that reason, as advocated in the last part of this chapter, teacher education programs need to integrate effective changes into their curriculum so as to urge prospective teachers to discuss and reflect on new and effective ELT topics. By doing so, they will be able to emerge from under

the influence of the NS and affirm themselves as rightful language teachers, prepared to make well-informed decisions among an array of additional options.

After presenting a general conceptualization of the English language and of ELT, the following chapter will examine the specific context of Europe and Portugal, especially in what concerns the presence and impact of English, as well as the development of ELT until today. Essentially, the aim is to better understand the context of the study focusing on Portuguese pre-service teacher education programs (in Chapter four).

Chapter 3

Describing the European and Portuguese ELT context

“O conselho de ministros aprovou um conjunto de medidas que, a partir do próximo ano colectivo, os alunos que se inscreverem no terceiro ano passam a ter sete anos consecutivos de inglês. *Seven years in a row* [my emphasis].”³³ (stated by Nuno Crato in *Negócios online*. November 13, 2014. <http://www.jornaldenegocios.pt/>)

3.1. Introduction

After a general overview of English language use and ELT in the Expanding circle context, this chapter addresses the European context, with particular emphasis on the Portuguese scenario.

The first part of the chapter considers how the use of English in Europe is no longer restricted to a limited set of scenarios, but has grown to assume multiple functions, as Phillipson (2003: 95-96) notes: “English is becoming progressively less ‘foreign’ in continental Europe, in that the language is not only learned for use abroad or literary purposes. English has several internal functions in such countries”. Berns *et al.* (2007) goes even further and explores the extensiveness of the domains in which the language has assumed many functions for an array of reasons:

In 21st century Europe, as in most other regions of the world, English is used for a variety of purposes and serves its speakers in a wide range of functions and domains. It dominates in the fields of science and technology, diplomacy and international relations, sports and international competitions, media (audio, visual, electronic, print), business and commerce, design and fashion, travel and tourism, the entertainment industry, and higher education.”

(Berns *et al.* 2007: 19)

After reflecting on the undeniably widespread use of the language and the emergence of a distinctive European using community, according to Berns (1995), the ELT context is taken into consideration. Due to the extensive pervasiveness of the

³³ “The Council of Ministers approved a number of measures, so that from the next school year onwards, students that enroll in the third grade will have seven consecutive years of English. Seven years in a row.” (my translation)

language, it is claimed that English no longer simply assumes the role of a foreign language, in the traditional sense of the word, but instead, acquires the role of an internationally recognized lingua franca. Because of this, the *Common European Framework of Reference* is scrutinized in view of its objectives and the reality of English language use.

Afterwards, in the second part of the chapter, the case of Portugal is reflected upon. It is argued how the diffusion of the English language in the country has increased significantly in recent decades, like in the rest of Europe. In fact, it is worth noting how Fernando Pessoa (1888-1935) at the beginning of the twentieth century, already argued in favor of the co-existence of Portuguese and English in Portugal, in which the latter was to take on the role of a universal language. Each language would assume a distinctive purpose in different domains, as underlined in Guerra (2005: 1):

If we use English as a general and scientific language, we will use Portuguese as a literary and private language. We will have a domestic and public life. For what we want to learn, we will read in English; for what we want to feel, Portuguese. For what we want to teach, we will speak English; for what we want to say, we will say it in Portuguese.
(Pessoa 1997: 151)

A brief historical reflection is therefore provided on the presence of English in Portugal until the present day, so as to understand not only the functions of the language within the country, but to reflect as well on ELT pedagogical approaches.

A general overview of the Portuguese educational system is likewise presented, highlighting foreign language teaching, and ELT, in specific. In addition to the major educational reforms implemented in the past, special attention is given to the current basic and secondary ELT curricula. Lastly, pre-service teacher education programs are also contemplated, so as to understand the structure and aims of these courses – the target of the study presented in the following chapter.

3.2. English in Europe

In European language history, the changing patterns of linguistic diversity and political power have led to a number of languages achieving a wider than regional

prevalence. Latin, for instance, was the lingua franca in most of the Roman Empire, not only because of its political, economic, technological, and military dominance, but also owing to its literary tradition and cultural superiority.

Much more recently, the Anglo-American dominance of the last century and the effects of globalization have both contributed to the affirmation of English around the world, Europe being no exception. For twenty-first century Europeans, in many cases, English serves a wide variety of purposes well beyond face-to-face contact. Not only does it function as the default language of communication in many multilingual and multicultural settings, but its presence within national borders has also become established in a number of domains, such as in tertiary education, advertising, mass communication, the media, science and technology.

The increasing opportunities for contact with and use of English among Europeans and other English speakers have contributed to the language's functional range and societal depth. Contrary to the traditional notion of the Expanding circle (Kachru 1985), in which language users follow native speaker norms, according to Berns (2009: 195), these functions have contributed to, "the identity of an English that is distinctly European in its formal manifestations and in its functional allocation"³⁴.

Contrary to other regions, Europe³⁵ is quite diverse in the sense that it has a distinct sociolinguistic situation. To refer to English as solely a native language (e.g. in the UK and Ireland) or as a foreign language (part of the Expanding circle) in Europe, seems therefore inadequate. For that reason, Berns (1995: 7) claims that there exists a distinctive "European-using speech community" with its own specificities, which include: the multiple roles English plays, the ongoing nativization or europeanization process, and shared patterns of acquisition and use.

In the first case, within the European scenario it must not be forgotten that English plays several roles – as a mother tongue, a second language, a foreign language and an international language. While it acts in great part as a native and second language in Great Britain and Ireland, in other countries, such as in Portugal, it takes on the role of a foreign or, rather, an international language. In the latter instance, knowledge of English is normally estimated as widespread, particularly in

³⁴ For further development on this issue, see Berns *et al.* (2007), Hilgendorf (2007), Modiano (2003) or Mollin (2006).

³⁵ When referring to Europe here, the member states of the EU and those countries part of the Schengen Agreement are contemplated. In fact, the free circulation of people and goods has contributed not only to strengthening cultural exchanges, but also to intensifying linguistic interactions.

Nordic countries, where proficiency levels are considerably high. The reality of Southern countries though is quite different, as English was only implemented as a compulsory language at a much later date, and proficiency at a national level is still a project in progress.

Secondly, a nativization, or even europeanization, process is currently underway. It is visible that Europeans are instinctively, or even intentionally, adapting and introducing innovations from their mother tongues that, in effect, de-Anglicize and de-Americanize their English. Among the linguistic processes involved, the most striking ones include lexical borrowings, functional allocation and discursial nativization (see also Mollin 2006). Although these features are exclusive to the European context, they do however reflect specific contexts of use and the recognition of a speech community described by “those uses of English that are not British (and American or Canadian or Australian or any other native variety), but are distinctly European and distinguish European English speakers from speakers of other varieties” (Berns 1995: 7).

Lastly, the third feature common throughout Europe includes the shared patterns of acquisition and use. Assuming that in continental Europe contact with English is not solely restricted to the classroom, but is also present on a daily basis, Europeans share similar opportunities of exposure to English and interact with both NSs and NNSs. Preisler (1999) thus refers to two types of English contact: English from above and English from below. In the former case, language is transmitted from a top-down learning process where “the promotion of English [is done] by the hegemonic culture for purposes of ‘international communication’” (Preisler 1999: 241). Customarily associated with a formal language-learning environment within national borders, English from above comprises essentially three functions:

1. Constituting a formal element of education by way of preparing people for the international aspects of their professional lives.
2. Providing a foundation of the individual’s formal acquisition of ‘English from below’ in any of its particular manifestations, including the ability to participate in activities representing subcultural interests and self-expression.
3. Ensuring that nobody leaves schools without a minimum of reading and listening skills in English and a realisation of the importance of maintaining such skills.

(Preisler 1999: 264)

In comparison, English from below alludes to language learning by way of a bottom-up process or even individually. This type of process is common in pop music, sports or with other youth subcultures (e.g. hip hop, interactive Internet gaming). In subcultures, similarly to what happens in science and technology, vocabulary is habitually in English and, from early on, there is a type of ritual in which English and code-switching are a part of these underground environments. Consequently, contrary to what happened in the past, when what was learned in school was afterwards employed in the outside world; today, external knowledge is brought into the classroom, contributing to a new reality, and establishing a point of departure for both teachers and students to develop and work on their language skills.

Considering these three features, it is safe to say that in Europe, English no longer simply takes on the role of a foreign language as conventionally established, especially since most interactions take place among NNSs. Bearing this in mind, Berns (2009: 195-196) argues that the different uses Europeans give to English encompass the four functions characteristic of a profile:

1. As a medium of instruction, it is visible at every education level and fulfills an instrumental function. From primary school onwards students study English and due to EU policies, this role has especially been on the rise in universities because of the internationalization of the student population (e.g. Erasmus programs).
2. The interpersonal use of English is seen in social contacts among Europeans (as well as between Europeans and non-Europeans) of all ages. Knowledge of English is also associated with a symbolic value as it may confer someone, or a specific group, with a certain status or prestige.
3. The use of English for institutional purposes is not very frequent within individual EU member states; nonetheless, it is an official EU language that is often the default language in meetings or conferences.
4. English and its innovative function have contributed to creative uses of the language in advertising, as well as in other media formats, for example, blogs, chat rooms, messaging or popular music.

In view of these issues, it may be assumed that the establishment of a EU, the free circulation of citizens (Schengen Agreement 1990) and the rise of a common

language among Europeans (especially among younger generations) have contributed not only to shared patterns of language use, but also to the development of a European identity; and, as Mollin (2006: 63) suggests, “this European identity could well be connected to English as the European lingua franca”. In this sense, individuals no longer assume only one identity, but several identities at various levels, such as regional, national and supra-national identities. Consequently, depending on the situation, the language they make use of will also vary accordingly. As Wright (1999) argues, the notion of monolingual speakers at a national level has given way to bilingual or even multilingual speakers whose essential features allow them to negotiate within their multilayered identities:

(...) national languages will not disappear although they may cease to play such an exclusive role in the various national spaces. (...) language practices are likely to follow political developments [therefore,] both linguistically and politically we may need to accustom ourselves to plurality: an acceptance of multilayered political identities and affiliations and personal bi- or multi-linguism which will allow us to be actors at all the levels where power is exercised.

(Wright 1999: 97)

These notions of English use and identity will obviously vary from one country to another, especially when considering the different historical events. For that reason, it is important to understand each situation individually in order to fully grasp the circumstances in which English is used.

3.3. ELT in Europe: its current pervasiveness

The English language has had an important position within Europe for a long time and, along with it, so has English language teaching. As for the presence of ELT, during the nineteenth century, English extended its role as a foreign language within Europe's secondary schools, and by the end of the Reform Movement in the 1890's, in most Northern European schools, English was already employed alongside other modern languages – making it a permanent fixture with qualified staff.

The first half of the twentieth century, between 1900 and 1946, was also a period in which interest was on the rise to learn English in secondary schools as well

as in adult education. In addition, given the fluidity with which Europeans traveled, the British Council was founded to promote cultural relationships, where strong emphasis was (and still continues to be) given to the British culture – as can be seen in the “History” section of the British Council website:

When the British Council was founded in 1934, Europe was in flux and the British establishment's decision to spread and strengthen influence through the development of cultural relations was arguably ahead of its time.

The founding Royal Charter outlined our mission as ‘promoting abroad a wider appreciation of British culture and civilisation [by] encouraging cultural, educational and other interchanges between the United Kingdom and elsewhere’.

Our mission is the same today, and it is as relevant now it was back in 1934. Communication has never been easier, yet understanding between people and cultures is as fragile as ever. We welcome the fact that many other countries also engage in this type of work these days.

(British Council website)

Moving forward to the twenty-first century, at a European level, the Eurydice reports on *Key Data on Teaching Languages at School in Europe*³⁶ (Eurydice 2008, 2012) have offered essential insights into language teaching, especially for language practitioners and policy-makers responsible for designing and implementing language teaching strategies in schools throughout Europe.

In the 2012 report it is mentioned that the main strategy of the EU is to encourage and promote the “cross-border mobility of EU citizens” (Eurydice 2012: 3), in which language skills play an indispensable role in fostering a smart and inclusive growth at a European level. Of all the languages learnt as a foreign language, priority is mainly given to English. Currently, it is a compulsory language in fourteen countries or regions within countries. From primary school onwards, it is beyond a doubt the most taught foreign language in nearly all countries, a trend that has been increasing since the 2004/2005 school year. In 2009/2010, for instance, roughly 73% of students attending primary school in the EU were already learning English, while in lower-secondary and general upper-secondary education, the

³⁶ The Eurydice reports provide a comprehensive picture of the European language teaching systems. They examine several issues of foreign language teaching, namely the organizational features, participation levels, and the initial and continuing education of foreign language teachers. Moreover, in the reports, views on the application of CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) in Europe are also available.

percentage surpassed the 90% mark. In upper-secondary, pre-vocational and vocational education, the percentage was likewise elevated, however, it was slightly lower when compared to the previous group (74.9%), reflecting the fact that students may follow other traditional vocational paths rather than language learning.

According to Seidlhofer (2011a), in addition to it being the main foreign language taught from primary level onwards, English is also being increasingly implemented at all educational levels in Europe (particularly in secondary schools) through Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)³⁷ (Dalton-Puffer 2007, Ruiz de Zarobe and Jiménez Catalán 2009). Furthermore, at a tertiary level, English has become the most common language used, with courses being taught entirely in English (Ammon and McConnell 2002, Jenkins 2014, Mauranen 2012). With the implementation of the Bologna Process, the desire to create a common European higher education network, where student and staff mobility is a reality, has triggered an even stronger presence of English, as it is “the most readily available common language” (Seidlhofer 2011a: 136).

Regardless of the path chosen, students’ awareness of the value of English is clearly visible, as the great majority believe English is beneficial for their future work (81.9%, with the exception of France), as well as future education (87.7%) and even more so, when it comes to getting a good job (90.2%) (Eurydice 2012). Considering these percentages, the 2012 Eurobarometer on *Europeans and their Languages* (European Commission) confirms there has been a noticeable increase since 2005 regarding the proportion of respondents who say they know English well enough to hold a conversation. The demographic group with the highest proportion of those who rate their ability to speak English as “very good” includes younger people between the ages of 15 and 24 (27%), those who are over 20 years old and have finished full time education (26%), those who are still studying (31%) or are self-employed (25%) or managers (25%), those who use the Internet daily (24%) and those living in large

³⁷ CLIL can be defined as, “an educational approach where subjects such as geography or biology are taught through the medium of a foreign language, typically to students participating in some form of mainstream education at primary, secondary but also tertiary level” (Dalton-Puffer *et al.* 2010: 1). However, as Dalton-Puffer *et al.* (2010) also acknowledge, within mainland Europe, CLIL practices have demonstrated a general preference for English over other (majority and minority) European languages; hence, contributing to what may probably be better identified as Content and English Integrated Learning (CEIL).

towns (29%)³⁸. Since English is considered one of the two most useful languages by the great majority of respondents (67%), it is not surprising that 79% of parents also believe it is one of the most useful languages for the future of their children; hence, contributing to making it by far the most spoken foreign language (38%), followed only afterwards by French (12%), German (12%), Spanish (7%) and Russian (5%).

In this sense, it is clear that as English becomes more widely used, the demand for it in European education systems also intensifies. As Myers-Scotton (2002: 280) puts it, “The more people learn a language, the more useful it becomes, and the more useful it is, the more people want to learn it.” As a result, according to the 2008 Eurydice report, “The teaching of English is constantly expanding and predominates almost everywhere [in Europe]” (12).

Considering its particular status, it may be argued that English in Europe is no longer a foreign language in its customary meaning. These assumptions can be made based on the range of existing English varieties and how most speakers (mainly NNSs) use it as a lingua franca in an array of domains. As Seidlhofer (2010) puts it:

(...) English has therefore ceased to be a ‘foreign language’ in the sense that other European languages are. Of course, there are still people that want to learn English because they want to, say, study in Britain, communicate with their friends in the USA or emigrate to New Zealand, and for whom therefore ‘English as a native language’ would constitute an appropriate target. But given the differences between various native varieties of English it would be impossible to prepare those learners for effortless communication with their chosen group of native speakers, and anyway, they will pick up the variety they are aiming for as and when the situation requires it. From the point of view of language education policy, what needs to be recognized and acted upon is that by far the majority of all European citizens need English primarily as a lingua franca for communication with all sorts of people in different domains, more often than not non-native speakers of English.

(Seidlhofer 2010: 366)

Given the current situation, English assumes a distinctive role when compared with other foreign languages, therefore taking on the position of an additional language rather than that of a foreign language. Nevertheless, the Council of Europe continues to define and measure proficient language use in English according to native speaker

³⁸ Although these percentages may not seem considerably high when analyzed alone, when compared with their counterparts, the former surpass the latter by nearly double or more.

standards, as it is similarly done with other foreign languages. Seidlhofer (2011a) points out that language policies tend to emphasize cumulative proficiency and successful communication; however, these are usually native speaker centered, with successful speaking and writing skills only being achieved if intelligible by NSs. Even though in language teaching there has been a shift from the notion of “correctness” to “appropriateness” and “intelligibility”, as it was verified in the previous section, the central target continues to focus on native speaker intelligibility, that is, being intelligible to NSs as well being able to comprehend them.

This is clearly visible in the *Common European Framework of Reference*³⁹ (CEFR) (Council of Europe 2001), designed for language experts to consider their practices, and to situate and co-ordinate their efforts, so as to certify learners’ real needs are met. Nonetheless, as already stated, these needs are consistent with native speaker norms, in which “intelligibility” is understood as being comprehensible to NSs and being able to understand them as well, highlighting NSs’ potential negative reactions – e.g. “amusing”, “irritating”, “behave other than they would”. These notions are observable in some descriptors available in the CEFR, such as:

Level B2 / Conversation – Can sustain relationships with native speakers without unintentionally amusing or irritating them or requiring them to behave other than they would with a native speaker. (...)

Level C2 / Sociolinguistic appropriateness – Appreciates fully the sociolinguistic and sociocultural implications of language used by native speakers and can react accordingly. (...)

(Council of Europe 2001: 76 and 122)

The language user is therefore placed in a perplexing situation; as an outsider, who should avoid “irritating” the “other”, while at the same time trying to “appreciate” how the “other” uses his/her own language.

Considering the current position of English, one may easily question whether it seems logical to demand such aims from someone who will most likely use the language with other speakers, who do not have English as their mother tongue. As a

³⁹ The CEFR presents a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses curriculum guidelines, examinations or textbooks in Europe. It also “describes in a comprehensive way what language learners have to learn to do in order to use a language for communication and what knowledge and skills they have to develop so as to be able to act effectively” (Council of Europe, 2001: 1).

European and global lingua franca, should there not be other descriptors for English, besides just those from the perspective of the native? Seidlhofer (2011b), for instance, highlights the discrepancies between other modern foreign languages and English in terms of their distinct socio-economic functions:

“The CEF’s lack of differentiation between ‘modern foreign languages’ (...) and ‘English’ (...) is puzzling, as the socio-economic roles of these two categories of languages are so obviously different that the objectives for learning cannot be the same. (...) ‘English’ *can* be studied like other foreign languages such as Italian or Japanese, but for most current learners and users of the language, the role of the language as a medium of intercultural communication, its function as a (global) lingua franca, will be the more relevant one.”

(Seidlhofer 2011b: 185)

These are particularly pressing issues, since most curriculum guidelines and teaching materials follow Standard British or American norms as the acceptable measures of proficiency. After many years of advocating for “authentic” teaching materials and focusing on “real” English, these have usually been centered on British or American standards, especially because of the wide variety of native English corpora easily available. As a result, this has led to consolidating the position of Standard English as well as that of the NS. However, as the corpora available on ELF increases, so do the descriptions of lingua franca use. As it has already been observed in the VOICE Corpus, the way Europeans are using English is very different when compared with what is acknowledged by European policies regarding form and function.

For this reason, it is vital to reflect on the distinctiveness of the foreign language and lingua franca paradigms, so as to understand how English functions in relation to other European languages. It is only by doing so, that ELT in Europe can take a step forward and adjust in areas such as culture as well as linguistic and communicative competence, to name just a few.

3.4. English in Portugal: from past to present

As part of Europe and the EU (since 1986), Portugal has been open to many new opportunities, both academically and professionally, in artistic, scientific and

technological fields, for example. As a result, along with Portuguese, English has also become a strategic and essential language for cooperating with other countries in international ventures (either in Portugal or abroad). This connection with the English language and the Anglo-American culture is however not a recent one. One of the world's oldest alliances, which still continue today, dates back to the Middle Ages, when Portugal and the UK signed the Anglo-Portuguese Alliance in 1373, and since then, several have been the political and economic ties established. For instance, it was the British's fondness for Port and Madeira wine that led to its worldwide exportation, along with the fact that many wineries in northern Portugal were owned by British families; in terms of tourism, the British preference for Portugal (islands included), in general, and the Algarve, in specific, has also long been visible, comprising a great part of the tourism market share⁴⁰; in the educational and cultural domain, the British Council has also played an important role in Portugal since 1938 – initially with the intention of counteracting fascist propaganda, and afterwards as a reputable language school associated with the Cambridge testing system.

Likewise, the US has also been a longtime ally of Portugal in strategic and cultural terms. For example, the US Lajes military air base in the Azores (a cooperation initiated during World War II and which has continued since then) has not only played a tactical role in several wars, but it has also had a large impact on the local economy and culture. The creation of the Luso-American Foundation and the establishment of the Fulbright Commission have sponsored as well the exchange of Portuguese and American experts in a number of different areas; hence, encouraging dialog in academic, scientific and cultural fields, for example.

At an educational level, English has been taught in Portugal since the eighteenth century; although, it was only after 1840 that it gained a significant role in the Portuguese educational system (Guerra 2005). After that, in the mid 1970's, it replaced French as the first foreign language taught at primary and secondary schools, and nowadays, not only is it the first and dominant foreign language, but it is also a statutory discipline of the national curriculum (Cabrita and Mealha 2012)⁴¹.

⁴⁰ For example, according to Turismo de Portugal (www.turismodeportugal.pt), in the first semester of 2014, the UK lead the ranking of foreign markets in Portugal, with 729,600 visitors (representing 18% of the total foreigners who visited the country), a 17.5% increase when compared to the same period in 2013. As for the specific region of the Algarve, in the first semester of 2014, British visitors dominated the market with the most overnight stays (1,642.9), an 11.2% increase when compared to the same period in the previous year.

⁴¹ The notion of English language teaching in Portugal is further developed in the following section.

Besides school, the mass media and modern technologies have played as well a vital part in the spread of English among young people across the country; they are the group that most consume popular culture (e.g. films, music and television shows) and new technologies (e.g. Internet, social networks and online gaming) (Bern *et al.* 2007). Furthermore, as Portugal has a long tradition in subtitling in both cinema and television⁴², from early on, language learners have direct contact with the source language that is English. This is especially the case on cable television, in which the films and television series aired are mostly or entirely in English.

The pervasiveness of English in a variety of domains within the Portuguese panorama is also acknowledged in Cabrita and Mealha (2012), where a number of studies are highlighted and which stress how:

- In cinema, all the top 10 films viewed (and translated) in Portugal between 2004 and 2009 were in English (according to *The Anuário Estatístico/2009 Facts & Figures*, a bilingual publication of the Institute for Cinema and Audiovisuals);
- In television, of the programs screened in November 2007, 71.05% were translations, of which 70% had English as their source language (Rosa forthcoming).
- In the *Dicionário da Língua Portuguesa Contemporânea* (2001), the Lisbon Academy of Sciences Portuguese Dictionary, there are 240,000 words, and English accounts for 70% of all the recorded foreign words (Casteleiro 2001: xv). The English loanwords can be found under various forms, such as in their original spelling (e.g. cheesecake, email, feeling, hardware/software, jeans, roaming, T-shirt), with some changes in spelling so as to comply with the Portuguese way of spelling (Casanova 2010: 197) (e.g. English: gang – Portuguese: *gangue*, English: football – Portuguese: *futebol*) or with double spelling, in which both the Portuguese and English forms are correct and used interchangeably (e.g. hamburger/*hambúrguer*; rugby/*râguebi*). It is also worth noting that in the preface of the dictionary (Casteleiro 2001), the editor argues that this is a comprehensive and standardizing dictionary, which includes the “Portuguesization” of foreign words or even substitutes them with vernacular

⁴² In Portugal, dubbing usually only replaces subtitles in films and television programs targeted at a younger audience, who has not yet learned how to read or who has not achieved the necessary reading speed to follow subtitles.

forms; hence, corroborating not only the presence of English words (as well as of other languages, although English outweighs them) in Portuguese, but also officially validating and accepting these words in the language.

- There are a large number of Portuguese companies with English-sounding names (e.g. Oon Recycling Solutions, Taguspark, Troia Eco Resort & Residences) and business projects (e.g. Inovcity and Young Lions Portugal), which visibly confirm the prestige English has in the country, while at the same time conferring to them an international dimension. [The same is also widely visible in the music field, with Portuguese musicians and bands adopting English names and/or mainly composing in English (e.g. Aurea, David Fonseca, Silence Four, The Gift or The Legendary Tigerman)].

These examples help illustrate how English use has been on the rise within the Portuguese scenario, and it can be further attested when comparing the 2006 and 2012 results from the Eurobarometer on *Europeans and their Languages* (European Commission 2006 and 2012a). When looking at both years, it is visible that the Portuguese generally hold a favorable opinion towards the importance of foreign languages, especially considering English⁴³. Although the percentage of people able to establish a conversation in at least one other foreign language decreases slightly from 42% in 2006 to 39% in 2012, the same tendency is also verified at a EU level, with a 2% decrease from 56% in 2006 to 54% in 2012. Despite this decline, in both years, and on par with what is verified within the EU, English is the language the Portuguese are most fluent in, followed afterwards by French. The discrepancy between both languages is relatively significant when comparing the results from the two Eurobarometers. While in 2006 there is only an 8% difference between both languages (32% for English and 24% for French), in 2012 the gap between both idioms rises to 12% (27% and 15%, respectively). When inquired in 2012 on the situations in which these languages are habitually used in Portugal, the majority (30%) state to communicate with friends, followed afterwards by when on holidays abroad (29%), watching films/television/listening to the radio (28%), on the Internet

⁴³ Despite a favorable outlook towards foreign languages, the Portuguese knowledge and use of foreign languages still falls behind the EU average. This can especially be seen when in 2006, 58% of those inquired were unable to have a conversation in any other language besides their mother tongue, while the EU average was of 44%. Curiously though, six years later, the average on both sides increased, with 61% of the Portuguese population unable to communicate in any foreign language, while the EU average also increased to 61%.

(24%), when talking at work, either face-to-face or by telephone (18%) and when reading books/newspapers/magazines (14%).

Considering the several facts and studies referred to here, it can be concluded that English is the language mostly used by people when in international scenarios, in addition to it being the dominant idiom of the general youth culture, as well as in the educational, scientific, technological and business fields. With this in mind, it is not unforeseen that 79% of Portuguese parents believe English is an important asset for improving their children's job opportunities (European Commission 2006). Similarly, young people also view English as advantageous for future job perspectives, as well as to belong to the English-speaking global youth culture. In view of these facts, it can be argued that learning English in Portugal is associated with two perspectives, a pragmatic and an emotional one (Leslie 2009), in which the end goal consists in actively participating in today's global society.

3.5. ELT in Portugal

Foreign language teaching has played an integral part of the Portuguese educational system for a long time. Bearing this in mind, this section gives a brief historical overview of the main educational reforms put forth until today and that have had a particular impact on foreign language teaching, in general, and on ELT, in specific. Afterwards, a general overview is given of the current basic and secondary education policies on ELT, and whether these reflect aspects of the lingua franca status English has acquired. And finally, the structure of teacher education programs in ELT is considered, especially after the implementation of the Bologna Process and the consequences that derived from it.

3.5.1. A historical overview⁴⁴

Before English assumed the leading position it has today in the Portuguese educational system, for several centuries, Greek and Latin were the main languages

⁴⁴ The Portuguese educational system has faced numerous reforms throughout history; however, for the case of this study, only those that have had a more prominent impact on the teaching of modern languages (especially English) will be here considered. For a detailed description on the general history of teaching in Portugal see Carvalho (2001).

taught at colleges and universities. It was only during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries that other languages like French, German and English started to assume a more prominent role in the Portuguese educational system, especially after the establishment of secondary schools (known as “liceus”) in the first half of the nineteenth century. Although the “liceus” were founded in 1836 under the guidance of Passos Manuel, they were only actually put into practice four years later. In addition to the other disciplines in the humanities area, modern languages, like French, English and German, were introduced into the curriculum at the time. In total, students had to study ten different compulsory subjects; however, after much controversy, in 1844 these were reduced to just six. This reorganization of the secondary educational system by Costa Cabral resulted in the exclusion of modern languages (French, English and German) from the mandatory curriculum; only persisting hereafter in the “liceus” located in the most populated cities (Mata 2001).

In the late nineteenth century, another reform was implemented, this time by João Franco (1894-1896). Secondary education now lasted seven years and was divided into two, the “general course” and the “complementary course”. At the time, great importance was given to German, while English was practically disregarded, even though three foreign languages could be taught in the “general course” (Latin, French, and German or English) (Carvalho 2001). It was only with the 1905 reform that more attention was given once again to modern languages, and English substituted German as the main language taught (Mata 2001). As of 1921, English was also offered in the “complementary course” (Carvalho 2001).

In the September 1947 reform (Decree no. 36:507) led by Fernando Pires, German was abolished from the “general course”, as learning three foreign languages in addition to ones’ mother tongue was deemed unfeasible. Meanwhile, French was maintained, as it was believed to be a cultural means of expression. In the case of English, its position was reinforced due to its expansion throughout the world, and also because of the historical and political ties between Portugal and England, as well as with their neighboring colonies (e.g. in colonial Africa, the longtime relationship between Mozambique and South Africa). The reform further noted that, as the mother

tongue of over 200 million people, English was the most important language of the 1,500 existent languages⁴⁵ (Mata 2001).

That same reform also divided the secondary educational system into three different stages known as “ciclos” – first, second and third – in which foreign languages were divided accordingly (see Table 3.1.).

Table 3.1. Distribution of foreign languages according to “ciclos” (1947 Reform)

“Ciclos”	Years	Languages	Number of classes per week
1 st ciclo	1 & 2	French	5
2 nd ciclo	3, 4 & 5	French	2
		English	5
3 rd ciclo	6 & 7	French	3
		English	3
		German	5
		Latin	5
		Greek	3

In the first “ciclo”, only one foreign language was taught – French⁴⁶; afterwards, English was introduced in the second “ciclo” and, during this three-year period, students attended five English classes per week, which lasted fifty-five minutes each, while French was reduced to only two classes per week. According to the Decree no. 37:112, the overall aim of English at this stage was to focus on both receptive and productive skills (reading and listening with reference to the former, and speaking and writing to the latter) so as, “to prepare students to the sequence of studies and to provide the most convenient means to satisfy the common needs of social life, as well as to improve the intellectual faculties of character building and the professional value and the strengthening of civil and moral virtues”⁴⁷ (Guerra 2005: 13, Mata 2001: 46). In the same document can also be found the content taught during the three years that comprised the second “ciclo” (morphology, phonetics, syntax and vocabulary/topics), the methodologies used (oral approach and Direct Method) and

⁴⁵ Diário do Governo, I série, nº 247, de 22 de Outubro de 1948 (page 1104) – “O idioma inglês, língua-mãe de mais de 200 milhões de seres, é a mais importante das aproximadamente 1500 línguas vivas do globo.”

⁴⁶ English was only made available in the first “ciclo” in 1969, when students were given the liberty to choose between French and English. Regardless of the language chosen, the aim was to introduce students to means of comprehension and international interactions (Mata 2001).

⁴⁷ Diário do Governo, I série, nº 247, de 22 de Outubro de 1948 (page 1103).

the authorized materials (textbook, grammar, exercise book and conversational book)⁴⁸.

As for the third “ciclo”, in addition to French and English, the two already existing languages, German, Latin and Greek were also introduced, which consequently led to English being reduced to only three classes per week. Despite the reduction, at this stage, English was aimed mainly at students who planned on continuing their studies in certain fields (e.g. German Philology) or at specific institutions (e.g. Higher Institute of Economic and Financial Sciences or the Colonial Higher School) (Mata 2001).

Roughly twenty years later, the Portuguese educational system was restructured once again by the Veiga Simão reform (1973) and basic education now encompassed eight years – Primary education consisted in four years and Preparatory education in another four years. Secondary education comprised another additional four years and was divided into two – the “general course” and the “complementary course” (see Table 3.2.).

Table 3.2. Portuguese educational system (1973 Reform)

	Stages	Duration	Grades
Basic education	Primary education	4 years	1-4
	Preparatory “ciclo”	4 years	5-8
Secondary education	General course (1 st “ciclo”)	2 years	9-10
	Complementary course (2 nd “ciclo”)	2 years	11-12

At this time, students were already able to select one foreign language in preparatory education and in the “general course”, English or French were respectively taught four and three hours per week, in the first and second year. As for the English syllabus in the first “ciclo”, it now focused on students’ ability to communicate with those who spoke other languages and came from other countries; hence English becoming “a tool of communication and culture” (Guerra 2005: 13). With these guidelines in mind, when it came to methodology, language teachers were encouraged to follow both an oral approach and the Direct Method, along with the use of audiovisual materials; nevertheless, what is legislated on paper is not always what necessarily occurs in practice, especially when regarding the latter issue. New

⁴⁸ It is worth noting that due to the change in the average age of students attending the second “ciclo”, in 1954 several changes were made to the English syllabus (Mata 2001).

technologies have always been a sensitive topic, especially when classrooms are not fully equipped, nor teachers receive the necessary training, which was the general case at the time. However, on a positive note, this reform gave teachers the freedom to choose (from a list of authorized books) the textbook of their preference, banning this way the uniformity of the single textbook existent until then.

Later, in 1986, the “Lei de Bases do Sistema Educativo” (The Comprehensive Law on the Education System – CLES) not only approved a strategic document that determined the structure of the Portuguese educational system as it still is today (see Table 3.3.), but it also contributed to the 1991 basic and secondary educational reform, in which all curricula (at both levels) were reorganized.

In what concerns the ELT scenario, new syllabi only began to be applied in 1995, affecting all levels from the second “ciclo” onwards (period in which students would initiate their studies in one foreign language).

Table 3.3. Portuguese educational system (1986 - CLES)

	Stages	Duration	Grades
Basic education	1 st “ciclo”	4 years	1-4
	2 nd “ciclo”	2 years	5-6
	3 rd “ciclo”	3 years	7-9
Secondary education		3 years	10-12

3.5.2. The present situation

At the beginning of the new millennium basic education faced yet another reorganization, this time in terms of curriculum, which had as one of its end results the reinforcement of the role of English at all levels.

In line with the Decree-law 6/2001, the Ministry of Education delineated not only the essential and underlying competences in the elaboration of the national curriculum in each “ciclo”, but also the achievement competences and the kinds of educational experiences that should be delivered to every student (Guerra 2005).

Resulting from an extensive project, the “Currículo Nacional do Ensino Básico” (Basic Education National Curriculum) (2001a) plays a fundamental role in

this innovation process of the school curricula⁴⁹; for instance, it identifies the ongoing educational/social issues in basic schools (e.g. the lack of successful completion of mandatory education for numerous reasons), it recognizes the poor correlation existent between the three “ciclos”, as well as the markedly homogenous pedagogical practices and depleted contents. With this in mind, instead of establishing a stringent set of regulations, the national curriculum has sought out to provide: essential educational aims, necessary competences to be cultivated, as well as learning experiences that ought to be given to everyone.

Along with this, the role of teachers has likewise been reconsidered. As professionals, they are now given the liberty and flexibility to adapt and employ new practices of curriculum management in more independent schools; the age of uniformity in classrooms and of teachers as “‘transmission belts’ between syllabi or ‘ready-made’ textbooks and the students” (Guerra 2005: 15) has come to an end. The National Curriculum essentially seeks to present guidelines regarding the competences to be fostered and the kind of experiences to be developed in each subject according to “ciclo”.

As for the specific case of foreign languages, the Decree-law 6/2001 gives particular emphasis to the thorough examination of the teaching of modern languages (Abrantes 2001), besides also implementing three additional measures in foreign language teaching (Article 7): 1) first “ciclo” schools may introduce a foreign language in their curriculum, particularly stressing oral skills, 2) learning a foreign language is obligatory in the second “ciclo” and that same language continues on to the next “ciclo” to foster fluency and adequacy and 3) learning a second foreign language is compulsory in the third “ciclo” (Guerra 2005).

Regarding the first measure, in the 2005/2006 school year, the Ministry of Education introduced within the context of the afterschool programs a syllabus for English teaching in the third and fourth year of compulsory education (ranging ages 8 to 10)⁵⁰. At that time, schools had the option to participate, depending on the

⁴⁹ The National Curriculum resulted from a collective effort in which a great number of organisms were involved – professional organizations, schools and working parties – as well as many meetings, documents and reports. Some examples of this effort include the fact that schools were given the opportunity to present projects on certain issues, and that drafts on general and specific competences were also examined and reviewed by various schools of education, universities, teachers’ associations and many basic education schools; these in turn led to reports that would later serve as a basis for the final version.

⁵⁰ After-school programs (“actividades de enriquecimento curricular”) usually function until 5:30pm and incorporate classes like English, Physical Education or Music. This measure was initially

resources available; but, as of the 2006/2007 school year, all schools are required to offer English to those in this age group. Since the 2008/2009 academic year, this agreement has also expanded to the first and second years of education (ranging ages 6 to 8) and continues still today (Eurydice 2008)⁵¹. According to Mackenzie (2012), in 2008, over 99% of the schools had put English into practice in the first “ciclo” and over 50% had implemented English since the first year of education. However, seeing as English classes are integrated in the afterschool program, attendance is not compulsory, so there may be children who attend English classes while in the first “ciclo” and others who do not. In September 2013, the Minister of Education, Nuno Crato, announced that the plan is to make English obligatory within years 3 and 4 of the official curriculum of the first “ciclo” starting in 2015/2016, but before that can be done, the syllabi for English in the second and third “ciclos” will need to be restructured⁵².

As for the second measure, up until 2012, students could choose which foreign language they would like to learn (usually English, followed by French); however as of that same year, English became obligatory in the second and third “ciclos”, thus guaranteeing five consecutive years of English language learning (Decree-law 139/2012).

Regarding Secondary Education⁵³, the Ministry of Education introduced new guidelines in November 2002 and published the final version of the Guidelines for the Curriculum Reorganization of Secondary Education (GCRSE) in April 2003 (2003b). The objectives put forth by the document⁵⁴ take into consideration the directives stipulated by the Council of Europe, so as to create a common European educational and training system, which among the various essential values put forth by the Member States of the EU, include opening “the education and training systems to the outside world through reinforcing the links with the labour domains, the increase of mobility and *the learning of foreign languages*, among others” (Guerra 2005: 19).

implemented so as to meet ends with parents’ long working hours; however, attendance is not compulsory.

⁵¹ For more information on English taught in the first “ciclo” in Portugal, see Graça (2013).

⁵² The curriculum reforms for the second and third “ciclos” will be implemented in the 2015/2016 academic school year.

⁵³ Since 2009, secondary education has now become mandatory until the age of eighteen (Decree-law 85/2009).

⁵⁴ The main aims of the document include: improving the quality of learning, fighting academic failure and cutting back drop-out rates, gradually articulating educational and training policies, and strengthening the autonomy given to schools (Guerra 2005).

In addition, the GCRSE put forward five courses at a secondary level, of which include scientific-humanistic education ⁵⁵, technological education ⁵⁶, specialized artistic education, professional education and vocational training. The first two courses are of particular interest, as they share several common subjects, of which one of them includes Foreign Language I or II (Years 10 and 11) – one of the two languages studied in basic education. The aim of this discipline consists in developing language skills that will enable students to communicate in an interdependent world and in everyday activities, especially within the European panorama. Of the four foreign languages offered (English, French, German and Spanish), English is the most chosen option to continue studying in secondary education in Years 10 and 11; English may continue to be studied in Year 12, however, it is only for those enrolled in the Languages and Literatures course (part of the scientific-humanistic area).

In Tertiary education, both at polytechnics and universities ⁵⁷, English is offered in a variety of different courses, besides the obvious English Language and Literature degrees (BA) and pre-service teacher education programs in English (MA). Courses like Computer Sciences, Engineering, Medicine or Psychology (to name just a few) also offer English for Academic Purposes or English for Scientific Purposes in their programs. Although, contrary to basic and secondary education, at tertiary level, universities/polytechnics have the freedom to devise the curriculum they plan to develop (e.g. the number of years and the number of hours per week), the only requirement being that it must be ratified by the Ministry of Education. As for the program and structure of each course, lecturers, under the coordination of a

⁵⁵ Scientific-humanistic education is further divided into five courses: Sciences and Technologies, Economics and Social Sciences, Humanities and Social Sciences, Languages and Literatures and Visual Arts.

⁵⁶ Technological education is likewise further divided into other courses, ten in total: Civil Construction, Electricity and Electronics, Computer Science, Environment and Land Organization, Equipment Design, Multimedia, Marketing, Management, Social Services and Sports.

⁵⁷ Polytechnics comprise higher education schools specialized in fields such as the Arts, Education and Technology, among other areas. The difference between the two types of institutions is dealt with the degrees awarded (Polytechnics have bachelor's and master's degrees, but not doctoral programs, which are restricted to the universities) as well as the specific aims, as Guerra (2005) explains:

While university education is designed to ensure a sound scientific and cultural background and provide technical education equipping people for administering professional and cultural activities and furthering the development of comprehension, innovation and critical analysis, polytechnic education is designed to provide a sound higher level of cultural and technical education, develop a capacity for innovation and critical analysis and inculcate theoretical and practical scientific knowledge and its application to exercising professional activities.

(Guerra 2005: 22)

pedagogic and/or research supervisor, usually organize this aspect, giving them the autonomy to explore what is deemed adequate for the course and students in question.

Furthermore, in tertiary education, the Erasmus program (European Commission) has likewise played a significant role in the mobility of students within the European context. Portuguese universities have particularly seen a significant increase of incoming Erasmus students⁵⁸, which has changed how classes in every area are taught. One example is that professors have had to learn to adapt to this new reality by teaching their classes in English. Not only does this measure require them to improve and work on their English, but it also places Portuguese universities in the competitive market of higher education, by attracting more and more students.

3.5.3. ELT curricula in current basic and secondary education

The ELT education policies currently in place, at both basic and secondary levels, range over a ten-year span, having been first implemented between 1995 and 2005. The most recent program is for the first “ciclo” (Years 1 to 4) and dates from nearly ten years ago when English was first implemented at this level in 2005, while the oldest programs are for the second and third “ciclos” (Years 5 and 6, and Years 7 to 9 respectively)⁵⁹.

▪ First “ciclo”⁶⁰

When looking at the English program designed for the first “ciclo”, it essentially aims at promoting not only pupils’ awareness towards linguistic and cultural diversity in general, but also of their own linguistic and cultural identity, when confronted with

⁵⁸ According to the European Commission, in 2012-2013, Portugal was the ninth most popular Erasmus destination, having received a total amount of 9,894 students. Furthermore, on the list of Erasmus 2012-2013 top 100 higher education institutions receiving Erasmus students, there are five Portuguese institutions that are included: Technical University of Lisbon (16), University of Porto (24), University of Coimbra (29), New University of Lisbon (37) and University of Lisbon (61).

⁵⁹ The programs here discussed are those that have been put into practice up until the 2014/2015 school year. However, it is important to note that the English language programs are going through a transition phase, in which curriculum content is being updated. The first “ciclo” curriculum has been updated in 2014, although changes will only be implemented in 2015/2016. As for the second and third “ciclos” the updated curricular aims date from 2013, however, these are only now starting to be put into practice, and in most cases will only be put into effect in 2015/2016.

All English programs from the first “ciclo” until secondary education are available on the APPI website (The Portuguese Association for English Teachers).

⁶⁰ In the first “ciclo” English is taught on average two times a week, 45 minutes each class (Decree Law 6/2001). From 2015 onwards, with English being compulsory for Years 3 and 4, students will have a minimum of two hours per week of English (Decree Law 176/2014).

another foreign language and the culture(s) associated with it. In addition, other values also include understanding how language functions as a medium for interpretation and communication with the surrounding world, as well as advocating education for communication, by encouraging values like respect for others, mutual support, solidarity and citizenship.

Considering these principles, the topics discussed in the first “ciclo” include: “me” (e.g. my family and friends, pets, my home, my friends, my day), “my world” (e.g. sports, food, clothes, hobbies and entertainment, days of the week, months of the year), “cross-curricular themes” (e.g. my body, health, transport, weather/seasons, shopping, time, universe) and “festivals” (e.g. Halloween, Christmas, Easter, Pancake Day, Mother’s and Father’s Day)⁶¹. The latter topic is thought to be especially relevant in what concerns fostering pupils’ empathy towards other cultures, given that it is a topic that usually captures their curiosity.

Since this is an introductory level to language, in which students are still at a relatively young age, particular emphasis is given to listening and speaking skills; although, the program does state that reading and writing should not be discarded, but should instead be used as supporting materials.

▪ *Second “ciclo”*⁶²

The English program for the second “ciclo” dates from 1995 and officially, it marks the beginning of English language instruction⁶³. Similarly to the aims in the previous “ciclo”, it focuses on developing pupils’ awareness to linguistic and cultural diversity when confronted with another foreign language and the culture(s) associated with it; in addition to encouraging as well social interactions, as communication encourages values like respect for others, mutual support, solidarity and citizenship.

Bearing in mind these values, the main focus of the program is on “Me and my community: places and people”, in which the following sub-topics are explored: “me/others”, “my family/others’ families” and “my community/others’ communities – spaces and people”. Once more, the topics are very similar with those studied in the

⁶¹ Even though the updated curricular aims have not been implemented, when analyzing the new ones, the themes are more or less the same with only minor changes.

⁶² In the second “ciclo” English is taught on average two times a week, 90 minutes for one class and 45 minutes for another (Decree Law 6/2001). The level of English to be obtained by the end of this stage is A1.2 according to the CEFR.

⁶³ When the program was designed, the first “ciclo” still did not have English language instruction, so this was the first year in which pupils had contact with a foreign language in schools.

first “ciclo”, the notion of self and surrounding social structures – family and community. Given that nowadays the majority of pupils already come with some knowledge of English from the previous “ciclo”, it seems counterproductive to repeat the same notions; however, because English has still not been institutionalized as a compulsory discipline in the first four years of basic education, there have been pupils who reach Year 5 of their studies with no knowledge of English, making it particularly difficult for language teachers to organize and adapt their lessons according to the different levels within the same classroom. Although the curricular aims for the second “ciclo” have been updated and will soon be implemented, until all those caught by the transition have gone through the several English levels, ELT teachers will have to continue to make the best of the situation and accommodate accordingly.

At this level, the program also considers the two major English-speaking cultures (the British and American culture), so as to identify not only their differences, but also to foster a positive outlook towards other cultures where tolerance and respect are essential. In addition, the distinction between Standard British and American English is likewise touched upon, for instance in pronunciation variation or vocabulary.

At the end of the second “ciclo” program made available to teachers, there is also a list of general and specific references that may be consulted, such as: dictionaries and encyclopedias, grammars, methodology and didactics reference books, textbooks, audio and video cassettes, and reference books on British and American history and culture. However, upon looking at the list of references, there are three issues that are particularly noticeable: 1) all references date from the early eighties to the early nineties of the twentieth century, which clearly demonstrate how outdated they are, 2) the references listed are mainly UK based (e.g. Longman, Macmillan, Penguin, Oxford), with some references from the US, and very few from other publishers (namely from the Council of Europe or from Portugal [2 and 3, respectively]) and 3) they do not represent the current use of references – video and audio cassettes are no longer used, for example, and no reference is made to Internet sources, a vital tool for language teaching today⁶⁴.

⁶⁴ The updated curricular aims for the second and third “ciclos” (2013) – that have still not been fully implemented – have obviously integrated updated materials and references, such as website resources, for instance; however, emphasis continues to be placed on native speaker produced materials,

▪ **Third “ciclo” (continuation level)**

The program for the third “ciclo”⁶⁵ also dates from 1995 and goes in line with the aims already presented in the second “ciclo”. At this level, the topics previously stated are further elaborated on, being the main topic “Me and my extended community: organization and ways of interaction”, which is then subdivided into: “me/the others” and “the extended community: my own/that of others”.

Considering curriculum development (as it is verified in the second “ciclo” as well), importance is given to students’ experiences outside the classroom and the school as valuable settings for language learning and cultural awareness, as can be seen when it is mentioned that:

The teacher should provide the students with the necessary means (...) to add to their learning knowledge and skills acquired not only in other school subjects but also in their experiences outside the classroom and the school, mainly the information received through the ‘parallel school’, whose role is quite meaningful in terms *of the language and the Anglo-American (Great Britain and US) sociocultural contexts*.⁶⁶

(translation by Guerra 2005: 108)

It is through English, as referred to in the aims of the program that students are able to communicate, not only with the target language and culture(s), but also with other languages and cultures, while simultaneously developing their own linguistic and cultural identity. Particular attention is given to the Portuguese culture and language as a way to learn about the language and cultures of the US and UK, and to form an attitude of tolerance and respect towards difference. References to the British and American cultures are quite common; however, explicit allusions to British and American English are less frequent. Some of the aims mentioned include: identifying and distinguishing both varieties in what concerns pronunciation, spelling and vocabulary, identifying contributions from other languages to the evolution of

especially focusing on British English (e.g. priority given to the British Council and Cambridge English).

⁶⁵ In the third “ciclo” a second foreign language is added to the course of studies. In total, on average in Year 7, the foreign language slot is three times a week, 90 minutes for each class. In Years 8 and 9, it is reduced to two and a half classes of 90 minutes each (Decree Law 6/2001). The level of English to be obtained by the end of this stage is A2.2 according to the CEFR.

⁶⁶ Original version in Portuguese: “Integrar na sua própria aprendizagem conhecimentos adquiridos e capacidades desenvolvidas não só na aprendizagem de outras disciplinas como na sua vivência fora da sala de aula e da escolar, designadamente a informação recebida através da ‘escola paralela’, cujo papel é especialmente significativo no caso da língua e dos universos socioculturais anglo-americanos (Grã-Bretanha e Estados Unidos)” (Ministry of Education 1995b: 61).

American English⁶⁷, and identifying features of ethnic dialects in American English (e.g. Black English).

At the end of the curricular program for teachers (similarly to the second “ciclo”), a comparable list of references is provided, in which the majority are both outdated and from publishers based in the UK; some references are made to publishers in the US, and very few are from other places (namely the Council of Europe or Portugal [6]).

In addition, it is also important to stress that as of the 2013/2014 academic school year, the Ministry of Education has implemented mandatory English testing at the end of the third “ciclo” (Year 9), as part of the project “Key for Schools PORTUGAL”. The main objective of these exams is to diagnose and monitor the performance level of English language students in the Portuguese education system, and in order for this to be achieved an English test developed by Cambridge English Language Assessment (part of Cambridge University) is applied to evaluate students’ four language skills from levels A1 to B1. Those between the ages of 11 and 17, and enrolled in other levels may also voluntarily take the test, although it is not compulsory⁶⁸.

▪ ***Secondary education (continuation level)***⁶⁹

The final version of the English program for Years 10, 11 and 12 (designed under the 2002 secondary educational reform) was approved by the Ministry of Education in 2003, and reflects a more contemporary outlook towards language and language teaching, when compared with the two preceding programs. This is particularly visible right from the beginning when the central idea of the program is presented in the introduction – due to the international role of English today, English should not be solely related to the two most powerful countries, the US and the UK; instead, it

⁶⁷ The examples given of contributions from other languages are rather misleading, as they have become current words of the general English lexicon and not just of American English. They may have entered the English language via the US, and may continue to be mainly used within the country (due to cultural, geographical or historical motives), but they cannot be considered to contributing to the evolution, this one variety. Some examples are: “moccasin” (from Indian), “alligator” or “mosquito” (from Spanish), “prairie” or “voyageur” (from French), or “boss” or “Santa Claus” (from Dutch).

⁶⁸ In 2014, exams were conducted in 1,325 schools to a total of 101,494 students (92% of which were enrolled in the 9th grade). The average global grade on the exam was of 66.5 (on a scale of 0 to 100) for the 9th grade. English language levels were distributed in the following way: Pre-A1 (24.3%), A1 (22.9%), A2 (31.6%) and B1 (21.1%) (Ministry of Education 2014).

⁶⁹ As the number of students initiating their studies in English in upper secondary education is very slim, only the continuation program will be here considered. The secondary education beginners program can be accessed on the APPI (Portuguese Association for English Teachers) website.

should be recognized as a plurality of Englishes associated with several cultures. This notion of plurality opens up a variety of choices on what to teach in terms of the linguistic and sociocultural aspect of the program, as can be read in the introduction:

As an active part of the European linguistic and cultural plurality, the English language has come to acquire the status of the primary language of the world communication: in the worlds of business, global information technology, science, among others. Questions related to what to teach in terms of language and culture have become more complex because of the fact of English assuming this status and more so because of the decentralisation of its two principal forms: *American English and British English. We have adopted in this programme an inclusive vision of the English language, incorporating other cultures in which it is the primary language, and giving privilege to its role as a language of international communication.*⁷⁰

(translation by Guerra 2005: 117)

The linguistic and cultural dichotomy verified in the 1995 syllabi is replaced then by a more global outlook in terms of English language and culture, fostering interaction and intercultural communication with a variety of English-speaking cultures.

The sociocultural dimension of the program takes into consideration students' view of their position within the Portuguese society and its connection with the broader European and global community. As Moreira and Almeida (2003:10) note, "the syllabus places English in the framework of European cultural and linguistic plurality, highlighting the importance of developing active and interactive skills in English in order to promote a participatory integration in the European citizenship which is under construction." Moreover, the cultural, economic and social transformations resulting from globalization are also considered to understand the changes society has gone through, as well as the rise of new concepts and social dynamics. With this in mind, the several domains of reference for each year are:

⁷⁰ Original version in Portuguese: "Componente activa da pluralidade linguística e cultural europeia, a língua inglesa tem vindo a adquirir o estatuto de primeira língua na comunicação mundial na comunidade negocial, nas tecnologias globais de informação, na ciência e na divulgação científica, de entre outras. As questões relacionadas com o que ensinar em termos de língua e cultura têm-se assim complexificado pelo facto de o inglês assumir esse estatuto e ainda pela descentração no que respeita às suas duas principais realizações: o Inglês Americano e o Inglês Britânico. Adopta-se neste programa uma visão abrangente da língua inglesa, incorporando outras culturas em que é primeira língua e privilegiando o seu papel como língua de comunicação internacional" (Ministry of Education 2003a: 2).

Year 10 – “A world of many languages”, “The technological world”, “The media and global communication” and “Young people in the global age”.

Year 11 – “The world around us”, “Young people and consumerism”, “The world of work” and “A world of many cultures”.

Year 12 – “The English language in the world”, “Citizenship and multiculturalism”, “Democracy in a global age” and “Cultures, arts and societies”⁷¹.

Of the domains identified, only two emphasize linguistic aspects related with the international role of English: “A world of many languages” (Year 10) and “The English language in the world” (Year 12). In the former case, one of the sub-sections developed is the “English language”, where the following topics are touched upon: the language from English-speaking countries, the language as a means of communication between cultures, the language of technology and the language of business. In the latter case, this section focuses on the growth of English as a social, political and cultural phenomenon (e.g. languages of the world and expansionism, English and the information society, and the future of English) and the diversity of English (e.g. Englishes [standard varieties] and the interaction of English with other languages [linguistic and cultural enrichment]).

Despite these relevant issues, linguistically speaking, reference is not made to any precise features of English varieties (contrary to what is verified in the other levels, where particular emphasis is given to British and American English). Only in Year 12 is there a small section entitled “English Varieties/Registers”, where spelling, lexicon and pronunciation can be explored.

As for the list of references made available, in addition to the traditional American and British references, there is also a variety of websites, novels and films originating from Canada, New Zealand, Scotland, India and Ireland, to name just a few.

All in all, although this program assumes a more global outlook where the plurality of language and culture is concerned, it still continues to be mainly centered on English-speaking cultures, be them L1 or L2 cultures. If the concept of English as a world language were to be fully embraced, reference would have to be made to what

⁷¹ In Year 12, English is an elective class, so it is mainly targeted at those who plan on pursuing their studies in English Languages and Literatures.

is habitually understood as non-native speaking cultures, and additional weight would have to be given as well to their diverse linguistic features.

Considering the different programs currently in practice, all have in common the need for students to improve their knowledge and awareness of their own sociocultural universe, so as to comprehend and prove their openness and respect for other cultures. Furthermore, students' mother tongue and culture are likewise valued as a vital asset within the ELT context, seeing as they both contribute to students' understanding of their position within their community, be it local, national or European/global.

3.5.4. Teacher education programs for ELT

Pre-service teacher education programs are available at universities and polytechnics; although, there is one major difference between both. While polytechnics qualify teachers only for the first and second “ciclos”, universities qualify teachers for the third “ciclo” and secondary education (if necessary, these teachers may also teach in the first and second “ciclos”, but the reverse situation is impossible).

As for preparing language teachers (regardless of the language), in the recent past, there has been no single model followed by every university. The frameworks available vary between four and six years; however, with the implementation of the Bologna Process, BA degrees have now been condensed into three years plus two more for the MA degree. One major difference that has been verified at universities is that, while prior to the Bologna Process teacher education was recognized at a BA level, it is now currently recognized as an MA degree. Ceia (2010) illustrates how current ELT teachers (and all others) prepared for lecturing in Portuguese basic and secondary education have graduated in one of the following possibilities (frameworks date from 1984 [DL 34/1984] until now [DL 43/2007]):

- BA (=Licenciatura) plus pre-service teacher education (total 5 years)
- BA (=Licenciatura) plus pre-service teacher education (total 6 years)
- BA integrating pre-service teacher education (total 4 years)
- BA (=Licenciatura) integrating pre-service teacher education (total 5 years)
- BA (=Licenciatura) plus pre-service teacher education (= Master degree) (total 5 years)

Traditionally, teacher education programs have prepared foreign language teachers in two languages, Portuguese + another foreign language or English + another foreign language⁷². However, after the implementation of the Bologna Process, the specialization in Portuguese + English (the most popular one) was eradicated, while the rest was maintained (Table 3.4.).

This reorganization of teacher preparation courses brought about several issues, of which two are here highlighted. On the one hand, if a BA graduate in Portuguese and English Studies (which existed prior to the Bologna Process) decides to enroll now in the teaching MA, they will need to complete an extra course in a second language (at least 60 ECTS credits) to apply to the MA program. On the other hand, those who hold a BA in English Studies (with 180 ECTS credits, like in any other bilingual BA degree) will never be admitted as candidates in the English teaching MA degree. Even though their degrees encompass the most credits in English, as they do not have any in another foreign language, they are denied access.

Table 3.4. Curricular Frameworks for Language Teaching MA

Domains qualified to teach	Levels/stages comprised	Minimum number of credits for each teaching area
Portuguese teacher	3 rd “ciclo” of basic education and secondary education	120 ECTS in Portuguese 40 ECTS in classical languages
Portuguese teacher + of another foreign language (except English)	Portuguese: 3 rd “ciclo” of basic education and secondary education; Foreign language: basic education and secondary education	100 ECTS in Portuguese 60 ECTS in the foreign language
English teacher + of another foreign language in basic education (3 rd “ciclo”) and secondary education	English and other foreign language: 3 rd “ciclo” of basic education and secondary education	100 ECTS in English 60 ECTS in the foreign language

Furthermore, when analyzing the teaching programs offered at public universities⁷³,

⁷² Portuguese and English can pair with other foreign languages, namely: French, German and Spanish.

⁷³ The universities referred to here are the University of Coimbra, Lisbon, Minho and Porto, as well as the New University of Lisbon – universities which offered the MA in English + another foreign language between 2011-2013 (years in which the study here presented was carried out).

these are structured in a way that emphasis is placed mainly on language didactics and pedagogy, rather than on multidisciplinary contexts and on the promotion of dialog between foreign languages and other disciplines. Ceia (2010) considers the latter issues to be especially necessary in today's multicultural society, when he argues "an English Language teacher has to have this 'imperative understanding of social, cultural, educational and linguistic issues involved in the teaching of English in different national and professional contexts'." Bearing in mind Ceia's arguments, teacher education should rest on a research-based foundation, in which, according to Hannele Niemi (a teacher education expert from the University of Helsinki and designated by the European Commission to be a part of a group to establish common European values for teacher competences/qualifications) the three basic conditions that should be fostered include: 1) teachers' knowledge of the latest developments in research for the subjects they will teach, so as to adapt and innovate to how content can be taught/learned in different situations; 2) how teacher education itself ought to be an object of study and research, which can deliver feedback on the efficacy and quality of teacher education in various environments; and 3) adopting a research-oriented outlook towards teaching by employing an analytical attitude on their own observations and work, so as to improve the teaching/learning circumstances. By undertaking a similar approach, trainees are able to assimilate theory and practice, both in the university environment and during their traineeship in schools.

It is this idea of adopting a research-based approach, which has led to the study presented in this dissertation – how teacher education programs prepare future ELT teachers for today's language use. It is crucial then that these programs understand how pre-service teachers identify the teaching profession, themselves as teachers, their personal and professional identity, language norms, and the nature of communication and language, so as to acquire and develop important pedagogies throughout the program.

3.6. Summary and final remarks

Descriptions of ELF use are now well underway around the globe, but, as it was noticed throughout the chapter, those centered on the European continent prove that

the English of Europe is in reality very different in form and function from the English that has been promoted by European educational policies (Seidlhofer 2010). For that reason, this chapter began by exploring the presence of English throughout Europe, followed by its pervasiveness in all levels of educational contexts. Due to its singularity, the *Common European Framework of Reference* was also reflected upon so as to understand how its guidelines do not quite reflect the current linguistic situation of English language use, when compared to other languages.

After taking into account the European context, the field of study was narrowed down to the Portuguese panorama – the context in which the study, presented in the following chapter, was carried out. This second part of the chapter began by providing a historical description of the presence of English in Portugal, especially on its current widespread use in a variety of domains. Afterwards, foreign language teaching was taken into account, as well as how its role within the education system has evolved from past to present, giving specific attention to ELT.

Upon analyzing the current curricular programs in the several “ciclos”, it became clear that despite recognizing the international role of English, these continue to foment a standard outlook towards language and ELT. Students are in fact encouraged to view their own culture as well as that of others; however, these are mainly centered on a British or American outlook (and in some cases with references made to other native English speaking countries). In linguistic terms, once more, British and American English continue to be the standard varieties chosen, not only for use in the classroom, but also in the teaching resources suggested by the programs.

Bearing this in mind, it is evident that, if ELT classes are to adapt and assimilate to the current use of the language, a more international outlook focusing on communication between NNSs is necessary. However, for this type of an approach to be put into practice, teachers need to be educated and trained in order to know how this may be taught in practice. For that reason, the following study centers its attention on pre-service teacher education programs as central for promoting and encouraging new and additional outlooks to language teaching.

Chapter 4

ELF and teacher education programs in Portugal: A study

“I think everything is important, especially nowadays that we live in a global world.”

(Interviewee 2)

4.1. Introduction

After analyzing the major issues regarding English (as a lingua franca) and language teaching, both globally, and nationally within the Portuguese scenario, it became clear that in Portugal, there is a gap in what concerns language use, what is effectively noted in curricular programs and what is taught. Teacher education courses therefore play an imperative role for ELT teachers to be aware of the changing conceptualizations of the language, along with its shifting prospects. This group of professionals should not only prepare learners for the sociolinguistic realities they will contend with, but, in order to do so, they also need to stay continuously abreast with the current mutable international linguistic scenario. It is with this last requisite in mind that this study was developed, so as to establish what steps may be taken.

The chapter begins by presenting the two main research questions developed in the study, followed afterwards by a description of the research context, the quantitative and qualitative methods used for data collection (questionnaires and semi-structured interviews), and a description of the participants. Only afterwards is the collected data analyzed, bearing in mind three main areas: a) trainees’ attitudes toward English and their own language use, b) trainees’ attitudes about students’ motivations and language learning, and c) trainees’ attitudes toward their role as teachers and ELT in general.

With the answers from the study it is understood to what extent trainees have an ELF-aware outlook or a more native and standardized perspective of the language. With the feedback received it also becomes perceivable in what areas teacher programs can integrate innovative ways of looking at the language and its teaching, an issue that is further developed on in the last chapter of this dissertation.

4.2. Research questions

The interest of this research is in the role of ELF in ELT in Portugal, more specifically, how it can be further integrated through pre-service teacher education programs. This concern has consequently led to the formulation of two main research questions (that are further subdivided) that constitute the guidelines for this study:

3. Do pre-service teacher education programs have an effect on the attitudes of teacher trainees in terms of language and teaching? In other words, is there a difference in trainees' attitudes when comparing them at the beginning and then at end of their studies?
4. To what extent are pre-service teachers' opinions on ELT influenced by their time spent abroad and language teaching experience? With these two notions in mind, to what point do they also affect the following more specific issues:
 - What motivational factors do they believe guide students' current English language use and do these opinions go in line with their practices?
 - Do trainees demonstrate a linguistically and culturally attached outlook toward the two main English-speaking communities (British and American), or is their position more internationally focused and ideologically neutral?
 - How do trainees view native speakerness and non-native speakerness in what concerns language aims and their role as ELT teachers?

These research questions attempt to direct this study in an effort to find out whether pre-service teacher programs as a whole may affect teacher trainees' attitudes regarding ELT and ELF. The first research question is centered on the impact formal teacher training may have (or not) on future teachers' perspectives in what concerns language, language skills and culture in ELT, therefore, comparing the progress made from the beginning to the end of their training. The second question seeks to understand how both teaching and life experiences influence trainees' perspectives on what they believe to be students' motivations for learning English, and their own outlook towards language and teaching, especially when referring to notions of native speakerness and non-native speakerness.

The answers to these two central questions will result in a proposal on what

approaches/practices may be implemented in order to adopt a more ELF-aware perspective in teacher education courses, which may afterwards be implemented in classrooms, as it is outlined in the following chapter.

4.3. Research context

The context for this research is restricted to the Portuguese panorama, more specifically to Portuguese universities that offer pre-service ELT programs at an MA level (known in Portuguese as “Mestrados em Ensino”). In this study, only the teaching MA degrees offered at universities are taken into consideration, excluding this way the teaching degrees offered at polytechnics. The reason for this lies on the fact that university programs are traditionally denoted as offering more advanced studies on English language, literature and culture, as they prepare future teachers for third “ciclo” and secondary education; while polytechnics only prepare teachers for second “ciclo” education.

Taking these issues into consideration, this study was implemented between the years of 2011 and 2013, and it involved identifying all the universities within Portugal (islands included) that offered pre-service teaching MA degrees with an English component and which had accepted candidates during that period of time. In order to guarantee uniformity, only public universities were taken into consideration, seeing as the number of private institutions offering this type of degree was very slim. Considering these aspects, the research context consists of five universities in total: the University of Coimbra (UC), the University of Lisbon (UL), the University of Minho (UM), the University of Porto (UP) and the New University of Lisbon (UNL). These universities cover a wide geographic area from the north to the center of Portugal (unfortunately, the only university in the south of Portugal that had an ELT program did not partake in this study).

4.4. Methods of data collection: quantitative and qualitative approaches

This study draws on a mixed methods approach by relying on both quantitative and qualitative strategies of inquiry. According to Denzin and Lincoln (2000), the use of

several methodological practices contributes this way to a certain rigor, complexity, richness and depth of the study.

In this specific case, at a first moment, an online survey was distributed to all participating universities; while at a second moment, individual semi-structured interviews were conducted to a smaller group of participants. Furthermore, the English language curricular programs from basic to secondary school and the curricular programs of the several MA programs were also considered in order to understand the guiding paradigms for teachers.

4.4.1. Survey

Surveys represent a practical way of collecting data on large groups in a rather economic manner, and are often used in Applied Linguistics and Second Language research (Brown 2001, Cohen *et al.* 2000, Dornyei 2003, 2007), hence some of the main reasons for choosing them as one of the key instruments for this research.

As for the survey *per se*, it was developed through *Kwiksurveys*, a website based survey tool that offers a full version of their online survey software for free. The directors of the MA programs played a pivotal role in sending out emails to enrolled trainees with a short message presenting my study and the link to the questionnaire. One of the advantages of administering the survey via an online format is that it enabled teacher trainees from programs across Portugal to participate in this project. Moreover, this format granted the possibility of participants filling out the questionnaire on their own free time, in order to not cause any disturbance with their courses, reducing this way the likelihood of scheduling conflicts, and allowing everyone to complete the questionnaire within the determined data collection phase. However, there was no guarantee that trainees would fill out the survey alone or with minimal distraction.

The language used for the survey is English; although, a brief introductory text was given in Portuguese explaining the reason for this study and that all information remains anonymous. An initial pilot version of the survey was given to a small group of fellow classmates and teachers at the English Department of the University of Lisbon, with the intention of receiving feedback on the questionnaire so as to make any necessary changes in what concerns wording or otherwise unclear questions. Moreover, the results from the responses gathered were likewise analyzed to see if

any additional changes were required.

The title given to the survey is quite broad: *ELT – English Language Today and English Language Teaching*. The general instructions in the questionnaire informed participants that the research deals with broad language and teaching issues, so as not to influence in any way their responses. For that reason, no reference was made to the fact that opinions would be analyzed in light of trainees' life and teaching experiences, and how attitudes would be compared between those beginning and those ending their degrees. In addition, as the intention was to evaluate their attitudes towards ELF, and not wanting to manipulate their responses, no direct definition on the concept was provided at any point. Instead, trainee's attitudes were analyzed in view of their reactions towards several aspects related to ELF, such as the role NESTs and NNESTs, the value of native and non-native cultures, among other issues.

The survey consists of 28 questions in total, which attempt to examine trainees' own attitudes and beliefs toward English, and their concerns on the learning/teaching of the English language(s) and culture(s) (see Appendix 1 for the complete questionnaire). Some of the questions developed are based on two previous case studies, Erling (2004) and Guerra (2005). In the first case, students' attitudes from the Freie Universität Berlin are assessed in terms of their experience with, attitudes towards and motivations for learning English. In the second case, students' (of which a small group of teacher trainees are also included) and teachers' attitudes from several Portuguese institutions of higher education are considered regarding EIL and ELT. The latter study is of particular interest to compare and contrast the responses received then with those gathered now, so as to verify whether opinions have changed⁷⁴.

When observing the several parts of the questionnaire, the first part aims at gathering background and ethnographic information about the participants, as well as their own use of the language. This includes issues such as:

- Year of birth (Q1);
- Sex (Q2);

⁷⁴ Guerra's (2005) study includes Portuguese ESP students and teacher trainees attending two universities (University of Evora and University of Lisbon) and two polytechnic institutes (School of Tourism and Hotel Management of Estoril and School of Education of the Polytechnic Institute of Beja). In total, 247 students responded to the questionnaire of which 64% (N=158) were ESP students and 36% (N=89) were teacher trainees.

- Country of birth (Q3);
- University affiliation (Q4);
- BA in English or North-American Studies (Q5);
- Number of years studying English (Q6);
- Evaluation of English language skills (Q7);
- Experience abroad (Q8 and 9);
- Experience in ELT (Q10);
- Frequency of English use (Q11);
- Situations of own English language use (Q12);
- Opinion on own English use and English in general (variety/ies, NS vs. NNS, ownership) (Q13, 14, 15 and 16);
- Familiarity with other English varieties (Q17).

Afterwards, trainees are inquired on their opinions about language learners and what is best for them:

- Students' goals when learning English (Q18);
- Consistency or mixing of English varieties (Q19);
- Preference of NS vs. NNS English teacher (Q20).

Next, they are questioned on ELT notions in general, namely:

- English varieties and their importance in ELT (Q21 and 22);
- Trainees' roles and aims as ELT teachers (Q23);
- Notion of culture(s) in ELT (Q24);
- Aims to achieve when focusing on writing, speaking, listening and reading skills (Q25, 26 and 27).

Finally, the last question (Q28) enquires on participants' availability to participate in a follow up interview in the future.

The survey is structured with a variety of question types, which are mainly closed-set questions, in order to facilitate the analysis of the data collected. In addition, the questions formulated were also adapted according to what was being asked, so as to not make it monotonous and repetitive. With this in mind, the

questions take on the following structures: fill in the blanks, multiple choice, Likert scales (varying from “strongly agree, mostly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, mostly disagree, strongly disagree and don’t know” or “very important, important, neutral, unimportant, very unimportant and don’t know”) and ranking schemes (e.g. from 1 to 5, from the most important to the least important).

Furthermore, it is important to refer that the method that was used for this analysis is of nonprobability sampling. In other words, even though this sample (the participants in the questionnaire) represents certain characteristics of the population in question, the probability of each element of the population being chosen for the sample was unknown. The reason for this being is mainly based on legal grounds, as access was not granted to the official student lists of each course.

Furthermore, of the several probabilistic approaches available, intentional sampling was the method chosen. According to this method, the selection of the elements that constitute a sample is based on the opinion of one or more people, who are fully aware of the specific features of the population in question and who are therefore in the position to indicate the possible candidates. In this specific case, the directors/coordinators of the MA programs were the key figures in identifying and contacting the trainees apt for this study.

Moreover, the survey data was collected over a two-year period, with four major announcements for the survey being sent out during the months of September/October 2011 and 2012, and March/April 2012 and 2013. These periods correspond to two important stages of the MA degrees, one corresponding to trainees who are in their first year and first semester of their degrees (September/October), and the other to those who are in the second year and the fourth (and final) semester of their degrees (March/April)⁷⁵. The initial plan was to work with one single group of trainees and follow their progress throughout their MA; however, due to the restricted number of students enrolled in teaching degrees at a national level and the low number of responses received (25 in total) in the first stage of the survey (in September/October 2011), it was decided that the study would have to include two academic years with the respective students in each phase of their studies. It is important to note that at the end of each survey data collection period (usually three to

⁷⁵ The survey for second year students was sent in March/April and not later towards the end of the academic year, because this is the final semester of their MA, in which attention is mainly focused on their written reports.

four weeks), the link was closed in order to prevent any further responses.

Once all the data was collected, it was treated anonymously and through quantitative analysis, and any potentially identifying information (such as university) was not associated with the responses. In addition, the data was computer coded and entered into the software program SPSS⁷⁶ (version 22.0) so as to be used in the (univariate and bivariate) descriptive analysis carried out.

Lastly, considering the conditions in which this study was applied, this is an exploratory study, from which some conclusions may be taken; however, in general, these responses cannot represent the total teacher trainee population in question.

4.4.2. Interviews

Like surveys, interviews are a popular technique in ELT research, as they are usually one-to-one, and are perceptive of individual differences and hints of tone and emphasis (McDonough and McDonough 1997). While the aim of surveys is to gather quantitative data, interviews are usually used to obtain qualitative data; that is, while one explores what is known as “hard data”, the other studies “supplementary data” or “complementary data”. In the latter case, this includes exploring into greater detail certain essential issues encompassed in the survey, as well as associated topics that do not lend themselves to surveys (Verma and Mallick 1999).

For the case of this study, the interviews performed take on more of a supplementary role, in which more or less the same issues are covered; however, complementary data is also collected in terms of interviewees’ feedback on their MA degrees. Bearing this in mind, some of the main issues discussed consist in⁷⁷:

- Background information (e.g. time abroad, teaching experience);
- Feedback on their Teaching MA degree (e.g. reason for attending, expectations, usefulness);
- Reflection on some teaching notions (e.g. culture, language skills, teaching materials);

⁷⁶ SPSS, or Statistical Package for the Social Sciences, is a software program dedicated to statistical analysis in the Social Sciences field. For this part of the study, I am extremely grateful for Susana Clemente’s help and expertise in working with the SPSS program. Her support and advice were essential for the statistical analysis carried out.

⁷⁷ For the complete set of interview questions, see Appendix 3.

- Recognition and understanding of the concepts NNS and ELF (e.g. role of NNS teachers, familiarity with ELF and its implementation in programs).

It is important to note that there are three types of interviews: structured, unstructured or semi-structured. The first one consists of having a list of arranged questions from which the researcher cannot diverge; the second type is defined by objectives that are only broadly delineated, giving respondents more freedom in their answers; and the semi-structured one is situated between these two extremes. These interviews have a general structured framework, but room is also allowed for flexibility – the order of the questions may be changed and responses may be further developed (McDonough and McDonough 1997). Even though the researcher regulates the direction of the interview, there is more flexibility for the negotiation, discussion and expansion of respondents' personalized responses (e.g. follow-up or clarification questions). Nevertheless, as referred to in Opie (2004), despite this freedom, semi-structured interviews require a general outline so as to avoid respondents from going adrift and digressing from the central notions.

For the purpose of this study, semi-structured interviews were applied, as useful instruments for assessing attitudes and values that may not have been accommodated for in the survey. Interviews were conducted with those concluding their MA degrees, but only after closing the last phase of the online survey (in May 2013). The reason for choosing second-year trainees over first-year trainees lies on the fact that this group has already gone through the various semesters of the pre-service teacher programs, and therefore have a broad and critical view of what was or was not developed, and what they would have liked to see explored.

As previously mentioned, at the end of the online survey respondents were asked to indicate whether they could be later contacted for an interview and if so, to submit their email address. Those who demonstrated willingness to participate were contacted a month later via email. However, responses to partake in the interviews were very scant; some did not respond to the recruitment emails, while others referred to the lack of time as a barrier in their participation. For this reason, no volunteers were rejected and in total six interviews were conducted with interviewees from four universities (one from UC, two from UL, one from UM and two from the UNL).

Due to the geographical distance in some cases and the erratic timetables in others, the interviews were done face-to-face via Skype. The interviews were

conducted in English and were audio recorded on two platforms: the software program *Audacity* and on a digital recorder. In total there are 203 minutes of recordings; on average the interviews have the duration of 34 minutes, in which the shortest lasts 18 minutes, while the length of the longest is of 55 minutes.

The interview recordings have been transcribed and analyzed; however, seeing as transcription conventions usually differ according to the aim of the research, for the purpose of this study, content is more important when compared to paralinguage. For this reason, a more general form of transcription has been used based on Litzenberg (2013), who in turn adapted the conventions from Schiffrin (1994) (a complete list of the conventions may be found in Appendix 4).

4.5. Description of the participants in the study

The participants in the study are trainees from English teaching MA degrees from the following universities: UC, UL, UM, UP and UNL. When observing the complete sample, responses were received from a total 109 trainees (66% of the total population enrolled in these degrees), which can be divided into two groups: first-year trainees (61 participants – 56% of the total) and second-year trainees (48 participants – 44% of the total) (Tables 4.1.)⁷⁸.

The majority of the survey population is composed of women (84%) and ages vary mainly between mid-twenties to mid-forties, 50% of which were born between 1980 and 1989 and 31% between 1970 and 1979. In addition, almost all respondents were born in Portugal (N=99, 91%), with few exceptions from other Portuguese-speaking countries (3), Europe (4) and countries from the North and South American continent (3)⁷⁹. Of those involved in the study, most also have an educational background, in which their BA degrees involve English or North American studies (N=78, 72%).

⁷⁸ For a detailed outline of the total number of students (male and female) enrolled and attending the MA programs in each participating university, and the total number of students (male and female) who responded, see Appendix 2.

⁷⁹ Only one participant is from an English-speaking country (Canada), although s/he is the child of Portuguese parents.

Table 4.1. Number of 1st and 2nd year responses according to university – frequency and percentage

1 st year					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	UNL	15	24.6	24.6	24.6
	UC	7	11.5	11.5	36.1
	UL	6	9.8	9.8	45.9
	UP	30	49.2	49.2	95.1
	UM	3	4.9	4.9	100.0
	Total	61	100.0	100.0	
2 nd year					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	UNL	11	22.9	22.9	22.9
	UC	9	18.8	18.8	41.7
	UL	5	10.4	10.4	52.1
	UP	15	31.3	31.3	83.3
	UM	8	16.7	16.7	100.0
	Total	48	100.0	100.0	

As for their linguistic and professional background, there are some slight differences between the two groups. When it comes to the number of years participants have been studying English (Q6), the majority have been doing so for over thirteen years; however, when looking at those who have been doing so for fewer time (7-9 years), the percentage is higher in the group of first-year trainees (15% compared to 4% in the second year) (Table 4.2.).

Table 4.2. Number of years studying English – frequency and percentage

1 st year					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	7-9 years	9	14.8	14.8	14.8
	10-12 years	16	26.2	26.2	41.0
	13+ years	36	59.0	59.0	100.0
	Total	61	100.0	100.0	
2 nd year					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	7-9 years	2	4.2	4.2	4.2
	10-12 years	10	20.8	20.8	25.0
	13+ years	36	75.0	75.0	100.0
	Total	48	100.0	100.0	

When asked to evaluate their English language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) (Q7) according to the CEFR, it is interesting to note that levels vary between

B1 and C2. When comparing active (speaking and writing) and passive (listening and reading) skills, active skills are the ones with which respondents have the most difficulties and classify themselves at a lower level. However, when comparing first and second-year trainees, proficiency tends to increase, especially in what concerns active skills and by the end of their studies, a great part of the trainees evaluate their language skills as C2, with percentages nearing 60% and over (Table 4.3.).

Table 4.3. Evaluation of language skills – percentage

	B1		B2		C1		C2	
	Y1	Y2	Y1	Y2	Y1	Y2	Y1	Y2
Listening	--	--	6	6	55	34	39	60
Reading	--	--	2	2	34	25	64	73
Speaking	5	2	25	15	30	24	40	59
Writing	--	2	25	11	39	30	36	57

Similarly, Reves and Medgyes (1994) in a study on NESTs and NNESTs⁸⁰ also verified that a large part of their respondents (84%) admitted to having certain difficulties with active language skills, namely vocabulary and fluency, followed afterwards by speaking, pronunciation and listening comprehension.

In the interviews conducted, trainees were further inquired on their English proficiency; on whether they believe the teacher courses have helped them improve their English. From the feedback received, responses vary among the several trainees, with some referring to how they still continue to feel insecure about their own level of English, and therefore need to practice more; while in other cases, they mention the English language classes have helped them to practice their own English:

INT_1: “I think I should practice more my English.”

INT_2: “Not really. We didn’t work on that [improving own language skills]. We did have some lessons with a NS who taught in English, but we didn’t work on that [our own English].”

⁸⁰ This study is the result of an international survey on 216 NS and NNS English teachers from ten countries (Brazil, former Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Israel, Mexico, Nigeria, Russia, Sweden, Yugoslavia and Zimbabwe).

INT_3: “We had a subject called Advanced English and Language Analysis, where we were able to practice our own English.”

INT_4: “I think it [my English] is improving. Again, while I’m saying this, I am conscious that I commit some mistakes and errors, hum... But I hope that I will change that for better. (...) I think all these Master’s courses should have English C1 and English C2.”

INT_5: “Well, I guess so [in terms of language improvement]. At least the fluency, but accuracy, as well. Accuracy is something that is hard. (...) I had English language [a class]. It was a very high level of English, it was quite useful for me. (...) It’s positive for the fluency, because you keep talking, you keep contacting, you cannot forget the language. But as far as accuracy is concerned, either you know it or not.”

It is worth noting that not all teaching MA degrees have a seminar focused on English language in specific. In some universities there is no seminar focused on language, while in other cases it is a compulsory component of the program, and yet in others, it is an elective course that trainees may choose to attend.

When taking a look at trainees’ international experience, a great number of people from both groups have spent some time abroad (N=73, 67% in total) traveling to a number of different countries for various amounts of time (Q8 and Q9) (Appendix 6 – Table 1). Of those who have had experiences in other countries, 70% (N=51) have traveled to non-native English speaking European countries, followed closely by 68% (N=50) who have gone to English speaking countries (e.g. UK, Ireland, Canada, US). The length of their stays varies widely on each occasion; for each trip taken, the majority stays either for less than a month (N=45, 62%) or between a month and one year (N=39, 53%). There are however several cases of respondents, who have lived abroad for over a year (N=15, 21%). These numbers indicate that a large number of trainees have traveled abroad, either for leisure while on vacation, or for educational/professional reasons (several respondents mention periods of one semester and a year, which may be indicative of participation in the Erasmus program or some aspect of a similar nature). Of the several journeys made

abroad, 77% (N=56) of the participants refer to having used English as their language of communication in both English speaking countries and non-native English speaking countries; however, it is noteworthy that many also make an effort to speak the local language when they know it (N=48, 66%).

Seeing as experiences abroad usually influence people's perspectives on language and culture, in the interviews conducted, participants were asked whether the time they spent in a foreign country helped them change their perspective about how they look at or perceive the English language, and in what way. Of the responses received, the majority (only one interviewee had not traveled abroad at the time of the interview) claims that going abroad has greatly changed their perspective of the language in a positive way. Some of the main ideas mentioned vary between notions related to nativeness, in terms of language and culture (with specific reference made to the UK), and to issues of communication, and to what one interviewee refers to as "real English". As a result, participants comment on how their travels have contributed not only to improve their own language skills, but also to develop better teaching practices (so to be prepared to face students), to get to know the culture that will be taught in the classroom and to learn how to adapt to different speakers. Some examples taken from the interviews include:

INT_1: "When we think about the language, we try to communicate. We don't have the question of pronunciation (...) it's not an issue for a foreigner, as long as you can communicate."

INT_2: "It's really different when you learn a language in your native country and you don't have contact with native people. Once you get the chance to be surrounded by the English language, every day, every minute, it really makes a difference, and it gives you a better capacity to deal with the students later on, with any questions they may ask, whatever problems that may come up. (...) Every kind of experience that you have with the foreign language that you work with can have a great contribution to whatever you do later with the language."

INT_4: "There is the English of books and grammars, and there's in a way "real English", the English that is spoken in different countries, and so there are a lot of varieties of English. To me, language is not something that is stuck to rules.

Rules do exist, but languages are living entities (...) they develop and gain lots of different words, they are in constant change. (...) I tend to try to adapt, I know it's not correct, but it happens a lot."

INT_5: "(...) Especially in what culture is concerned. I was aware of how the British think and how they behave, and they don't teach us that in the classroom. It was a very positive experience. What was even more positive was the opportunity to improve my English language speaking skills because I was an average student, so my level of English was not very high, so I had the opportunity to improve it."

Besides traveling, most of first-year (Y1) trainees and second-year (Y2) trainees also use English for work (72% and 94% each) and social networking/chatting (90% and 88%), followed afterwards when traveling (71% and 58%) and for computer use (57% and 54%) (Q12). As for English use with friends and family, this is the most infrequent option among the group (Appendix 6 – Table 2). In general terms, when inquired on the frequency of their use of English (Q11), the majority of the respondents refer they use the language on a regular basis, with most answers falling between the "often" or "very often" categories (Table 4.4.).

Table 4.4. Regularity of English use – frequency and percentage

1 st year					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Never	1	1.6	1.6	1.6
	Rarely	7	11.5	11.5	13.1
	Often	22	36.1	36.1	49.2
	Very Often	24	39.3	39.3	88.5
	Always	7	11.5	11.5	100.0
	Total	61	100.0	100.0	
2 nd year					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Rarely	4	8.3	8.3	8.3
	Often	14	29.2	29.2	37.5
	Very Often	24	50.0	50.0	87.5
	Always	6	12.5	12.5	100.0
	Total	48	100.0	100.0	

Taking into account experience in ELT (Q10), many trainees have had some practice with language teaching; in most cases, experience varies between 1-5 years (44% in the Y1 and 27% in Y2) and 6-10 years (16% and 23%, respectively) (Table 4.5.). As for those with no prior ELT experience, percentages do not vary greatly, 34% in Y1 and 38% in Y2.

Table 4.5. Experience in ELT – frequency and percentage

1st year					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	None	21	34.4	34.4	34.4
	1-5 years	27	44.3	44.3	78.7
	6-10 years	10	16.4	16.4	95.1
	11+ years	3	4.9	4.9	100.0
	Total	61	100.0	100.0	
2nd year					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	None	18	37.5	37.5	37.5
	1-5 years	13	27.1	27.1	64.6
	6-10 years	11	22.9	22.9	87.5
	11+ years	6	12.5	12.5	100.0
	Total	48	100.0	100.0	

As for the participants who have already been involved in ELT, in the interviews they confirmed that their teaching experience has been mainly based on teaching English to young learners in the afterschool programs of the first “ciclo” (“AECS – actividades extra-curriculares”), at private language schools or with adult language (professional) training.

4.6. Data analysis

This section is centered on the statistical analysis of the questionnaire, resorting to the interviews when possible to gain further insight into participants’ opinions and attitudes. As previously stated (section 4.2.), there are two main research areas that are considered: 1) the general opinions and attitudes of first and second-year trainees are compared, so as to establish whether teacher education programs influence their point of view and 2) first and second-year trainees’ opinions are also analyzed in light

of their time spent abroad and previous teaching experience. With these two issues in mind, the main variable for this study is:

- First-year trainees (N=61, 56%) versus Second-year trainees (N=48, 44%)

However, two additional variables are also considered in several parts of the questionnaire, due to the impact they may have on the answers given. These include:

- Experience abroad (First-year trainees: N=42, 69%; Second-year trainees: N=31, 65%);
- ELT experience (First-year trainees: N=40, 66%; Second-year trainees: N=30, 63%).

In the first case, the phase in which trainees are in their studies may influence how they deem English and ELT. At the beginning they may have a set of preconceived ideas of what language and language teaching involves, and after attending university seminars and going through the student-teaching phase, they may learn to adopt a different position. In the second case, time spent abroad either for educational, leisure or professional reasons in English-speaking and non-native English speaking countries may perhaps encourage a more international outlook toward English. For this reason, trainees are divided into two groups – those who have traveled and those who have not. Lastly, previous experience in ELT may likewise influence how language is looked at and taught, as more experienced trainees may be more aware of what is essential for students to communicate, rather than focusing their attention on specific standards or cultures. Bearing this in mind, trainees are divided into four groups: those with no teaching experience, 1-5 years, 6-10 years and 11+ years.

With these issues in mind, the questions at the beginning of the survey are centered on trainees' own English language use and how they view language, to understand their viewpoint, and later compare if it is similar with what they believe is expected from students. Afterwards, attention is turned to trainees' opinions on students' motivations toward language learning. Finally, trainees' views on their role as teachers and in ELT in general are considered, with specific emphasis on language, language skills and culture.

4.6.1. Trainees' attitudes toward English and their own language use

In what regards the description of their own language use (Q13), trainees essentially define and approximate themselves with native standards, being that roughly half of them state their English as a mixture of both British English (BrE) and American English (AmE) (46% and 48% for each group), followed afterwards by BrE or similar (Y1-21% and Y2-27%) and AmE or similar (Y1-20% and Y2-13%). Only 10% of respondents in both groups consider their English to be a mixture of BrE/AmE with traces from the Portuguese (Appendix 6 – Table 3) and in only two circumstances is reference made to Canadian English and English with traces from Spanish (cases in which respondents lived in other countries for longer periods of time). It is interesting to note that in Guerra's (2005) study, the responses gathered show a different tendency; sixty percent of the students stated that their English is a mixture of AmE and BrE, with its own characteristics and influenced by Portuguese, followed afterwards by AmE (19%) and BrE (12%). These contrasting results may have to do with the different aims in which these students are going to use English; while for some English may not be essential for their future, for teacher trainees, knowledge of English is vital for them to teach. Because of this, and similarly to what is verified in Jenkins' (2005) study, there is a tendency for NNESTs to demonstrate high regard towards native English accents, while other types of accents are associated with a certain inferiority, which they choose not to assimilate with.

In addition to trainees' preference for native varieties in what concerns their own language use, their familiarity with other varieties is also here explored (Q17). If the aim is to describe their attitudes toward English from an ELF perspective, it is essential to understand their awareness in what concerns native and non-native varieties around the world. The reason for exploring this aspect is because, as it is argued by Guerra (2005: 146), "the extent of one's view of English as a global language might be related to one's acquaintance with different varieties of the language." Bearing this in mind, the following possibilities were presented to them in the questionnaire:

- American English;
- British English;

- Other native varieties (e.g. Canadian English, Australian English);
- L2 varieties (e.g. Indian English, Singaporean English);
- Type of English spoken by NNSs who have an accent influenced by their mother tongue.

With regards to BrE and AmE, responses from both groups range between 95% and 100% (Table 4.6.), which is not surprising, considering their previous response in terms of the English they speak; however, when it comes to knowledge of other varieties, awareness is considerably low. Besides BrE and AmE, both groups consider NNSs' English with a mother tongue accent the one they are most familiar with, followed far behind by other L1 varieties and L2 varieties⁸¹. Despite other L1 and L2 varieties lagging far behind, familiarity increases (by 18% and 1%, respectively) from the first year to the second year; hence, indicating that trainees must have some sort of contact with other varieties throughout their MA programs.

Table 4.6. Familiarity with English varieties – percentage

	1 st year	2 nd year
BrE	95	100
AmE	97	96
NNSs with mother tongue accent	75	65
Other L1 varieties	30	48
L2 varieties	12	13

It is noteworthy that these percentages go practically hand in hand with Guerra's (2005) research, in which familiarity with BrE and AmE reached 96%, EFL accents 55%, other ENL varieties 58% and lastly, ESL varieties 15%. The results for BrE and AmE likewise support those from previous studies in which familiarity was also assessed. One example is of a case study targeted at the adult population of Denmark (Preisler 1999), in which 81% stated they were able to distinguish both AmE and BE. In another study directed at roughly 300 EFL students in Argentina and Brazil, Friedrich (2002) also acknowledged the subjects' unfamiliarity with other varieties beyond BrE and AmE.

The importance given to the two main native varieties is clearly perceptible in

⁸¹ For access to the complete table see Appendix 6 – Table 4.

terms of performance and knowledge; however, trainees are also aware of the role of English as an international language. For instance, when communicating in English (Q14), more than two-thirds of the respondents usually interact with NNSs (Appendix 6 – Table 5), which is not surprising when considering there are more NNSs than NSs, and that English has assumed the role of the most common lingua franca in many domains. The growth verified in NNS contact from one year to another (Y1-69% to Y2-85%) may also have to do with trainees' increased contact with English during their traineeship in schools, instead of just with their teachers at the university⁸² or when traveling abroad.

As for the notion of ownership associated with English (Q15), similarly to what was verified in Guerra's (2005) study, both groups clearly associate it as belonging to whoever uses it and not only with its NSs (over 98% in this study and 85% in Guerra's study) (Appendix 6 – Table 6). In addition, when asked to choose the best definition that describes English – “English is the language spoken in Anglophone countries” or “English is the language used in international communication” (Q16) – nearly everyone believes the latter definition best describes today's concept of English (95% and over in both Y1 and Y2) (Appendix 6 – Table 7).

Taking everything into account, when it comes to actual language use, as future language educators, trainees demonstrate a need to assimilate according to the two leading native speaker varieties (AmE and BrE). As for their awareness toward various English varieties, the same pattern is likewise verified in what concerns the same two varieties. One plausible explanation for this may be associated with the UK being the main destination for participants traveling to English-speaking countries, and the impact of the American entertainment industry in Portugal, namely through television and cinema. Despite their general unawareness of other L1 and L2 varieties, the group is utterly conscious of the impact English currently has as a lingua franca, and even though a certain “reverence” is demonstrated in relation to native varieties, trainees believe that as a language for international communication, it belongs to all who use it.

⁸² It is worth noting that all the Teaching M.A. programs here analyzed have at least one teacher collaborating with the program who is a NS.

4.6.2. Trainees' attitudes about students' motivations and language learning

As future language teachers, trainees should consider and reflect on who are their prospective students as well as what are their aims in order to adapt according to those needs. This part will take into consideration what trainees believe to be students' motivational factors, the importance of consistency in students' language use and the role of NESTs and NNESTs throughout their learning process.

Regarding students' motivational factors, this part analyzes data regarding trainees' reactions to fifteen sentences (Q18), in which they consider what are students' primary motives for learning English. Each of the statements has been assessed on a Likert scale from one to five: 1- strongly agree, 2- agree, 3- undecided, 4- disagree and 5- strongly disagree⁸³.

- Write personal documents (e.g. emails, letters);
- Write professional documents (e.g. emails, reports);
- Chat with friends online or for social networking;
- Read for personal reasons (e.g. books, magazines);
- Read for professional reasons (e.g. textbooks, reports);
- Read Internet sites;
- Mainly speak with NSs;
- Mainly speak with NNSs;
- Communicate when in English-speaking countries;
- Communicate in international situations;
- Listen to music;
- Watch television shows or films without subtitles;
- Have more job perspectives;
- Go study/work in an English-speaking country;
- Become familiar with the people/culture of English-speaking countries.

⁸³ The category "don't know" is not here considered, analyzing therefore only the results concerning the Likert scale per se. Seeing as responses in the category "don't know" are very scarce (in the majority of the cases not having even been chosen), they are statistically irrelevant. The same is taken into consideration in all the other questions of the survey that make use of Likert scales.

When looking at and comparing the above statements, both first and second-year trainees feel that all of them play an important part for learning English, seeing that for each statement, at least 49% or more of the group answered “strongly agree/agree”⁸⁴. The top five statements (in terms of the categories “strongly agree/agree”) that trainees believe most drive students in order to learn the language include using English for reading Internet sites (Y1-75% and Y2-92%), communicating when in an English-speaking country (Y1-94% and Y2-83%), going to study or work in an English-speaking country (Y1-78% and Y2-81%), communicating in international situations (Y1-93% and Y2-89%) and having more job opportunities (Y1-93% and Y2-89%), being the latter two statements those that received the most consensus. In contrast, those that seem to be the least popular include reading and writing for personal reasons, mainly speaking with NSs and mainly speaking with NNSs, with percentages for “strongly agree/agree” for both groups ranging between 49% and 61%. There are also several cases – namely, speaking with NSs and with NNSs, and becoming familiar with the people and the culture of English-speaking countries – in which respondents manifest some level of uncertainty, with percentages for “undecided” varying between 17% and 32% in these three examples. It is interesting to note that the levels of uncertainty are especially low when it comes to having more job opportunities and communicating in international situations (an average for both years of 5% and 4% respectively).

Bearing in mind these tendencies, it seems like the main reasons for language learning are essentially centered on the following motivational factors (Guerra 2005): assimilative, instrumental, integrative and international use⁸⁵. Trainees seem to believe they are essentially preparing students who will use English in a variety of diverse situations, especially at a professional level, as well as to go abroad to work or study (most likely due to the socio-economic situation of the country in recent years). In this sense then, it can be argued that those who adopt an international use and

⁸⁴ The complete table of the results is available in Appendix 6 – Table 8.

⁸⁵ Guerra (2005) classifies five motivational factors for learning a language: assimilative, instrumental, integrative, international use and personal. In the first case, assimilative motivation, from Graham’s (1984) point of view, is associated with the aspiration of becoming a member of an English-speaking community, which typically involves an extended contact with that culture. Instrumental, according to Oxford (1996), refers to learning a language for simply practical reasons, such as improving job opportunities and gaining access to better schools. Integrative, as put forth by Graham (1984), is related with learning English to interact with and/or learn more about members of the English speaking culture; however, it does not actually entail direct contact with the group in question. International use is applied to English a global level that is used with a variety of people in an array of diverse situations. Lastly, personal motivation is learning a language for no other reason than one’s own satisfaction.

instrumental motivation are more likely to embrace an international approach to English and ELT, while those who reveal more of an integrative or assimilative motivation tend to undertake a more culturally focused stance.

Besides analyzing and comparing first and second-year trainees' opinions, the answers gathered were afterwards crosstabulated with trainees' teaching experience, to see if there is any relevant information regarding how experience can change how trainees view students' motivations when learning the language. Of the fifteen statements, it can be verified that, in what concerns going to work/study in an English-speaking country, it is visible that the group (from the first and second year) which mainly "strongly agrees/agrees" with this statement is that with no teaching experience (Y1-86% and Y2-89%). As for those who already have professional experience, if, on the one hand, the percentage for "strongly agree/agree" tends to increase in each category when comparing the transition from Y1 to Y2 (1-5 years and 6-10 years); on the other hand, it tends to decrease when comparing with those who have no teaching experience. For instance, when looking at the difference between trainees with no experience and those with 6-10 years, the percentage for "strongly agree/agree" drops by 26% among trainees in Y1 and by 16% in Y2 (see Appendix 6 – Table 9 for complete information).

Taking into consideration whether students are motivated to speak mostly with NSs or NNSs, these two notions hold considerable levels of uncertainty in both Y1 and Y2 trainees. Nevertheless, those with no teaching experience or between 1-5 years are more likely to "strongly agree/agree" with speaking to NSs (Y1-70% and 62% respectively, and Y2-61% and 50% respectively), while those with more experience tend to express the opposite (50% "strongly disagrees" in Y1 and 50% "disagrees/strongly disagrees" in Y2) (Appendix 6 – Table 10). As for communication with NNSs, it is those with 11+ years that mostly "strongly agree/agree" (Y1-100% and Y2-75%) (Appendix 6 – Table 11). In this sense, those with fewer or no experience seem to embrace the fact that students will speak mostly with NSs, while those with more professional experience tend to take on a more international stance. This can be further attested by how all of those with 11+ years of experience (100%) "strongly agree/agree" that what motivates students is listening to music, communicating in international situations and having more job opportunities (Appendix 6 – Tables 12, 13, 14); in other words, actively participating in a global society, especially since the music industry is largely dominated by the English

language, that communication in English essentially takes place among NNSs and the fact that English is a crucial asset to progress in the job market.

When asked whether it should be stressed that students be consistent in one variety or if it is all right for them to mix different varieties (Q19), at the beginning of the course three-fifths of the trainees favor consistency (62%), but by the end of the course roughly half of the participants (52%) state that mixing different varieties is acceptable, a 32% increase when comparing the responses from first-year trainees (Figure 4.1.).

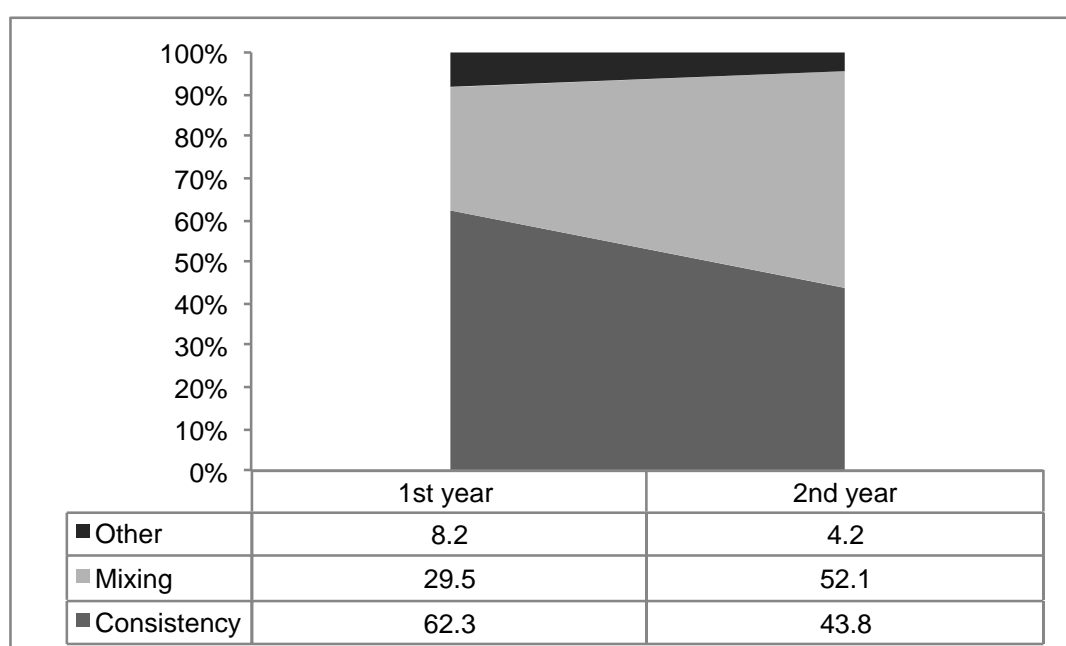


Figure 4.1. Teachers' role in students' use of English varieties (consistency, mixing and other) – percentage

A rather low percentage of trainees also make reference to other options that are of relevance, namely focusing on issues like the importance of consistency associated with the awareness of other varieties, which may be used according to each context. It is also suggested that there should not be one single variety and that what matters is feeling comfortable with one's own language use. Some examples include:

- "Students should try to choose one variety and stick with it, but if, in order to make themselves understood, they have to use vocabulary belonging to a different variety, that's ok."

- “It depends. Course books have a tendency to focus on the BrE variety so teachers must follow the program. On the other hand, I believe there shouldn’t be a dominant variety.”
- “Must be consistent in one standard variety, but, when relevant, also demonstrate that there are other varieties of English that their students may also find.”
- “Must be consistent in one standard variety in formal contexts.”
- “Must be consistent in one standard variety (but inform students of other varieties, without mixing).”
- Should use whatever variety they are comfortable with and expose learners to as many as they can (e.g. speakers, videos, CDs, etc.).”

The answers gathered were also crosstabulated with the variables experience abroad and ELT experience so as to analyze whether there are any distinguishing facts that may affect trainees’ opinions. In what concerns experience abroad, in the first year both of those who said yes and no to traveling largely agree with consistency (roughly three-fifths of the respondents in each group), while responses in favor of mixing varieties only reach about a third of the responses (Appendix 6 – Table 15). In the second year, however, responses in favor of mixing varieties increase in both groups, and it is among those who have traveled that the increase is the largest (by 26%, reaching a total of 55% in favor), while the majority of those who have not traveled continue to prefer consistency (53%). Bearing this in mind, it can be assumed that throughout the programs, there is change of opinion on how language should be taught, especially among those who have spent time out of the country, and who, because of that, also have a more international outlook in terms of language use.

As for the crosstabulation with ELT experience, there are also statistical differences. On the whole, trainees with no experience are the ones with the most traditional point of view (Y1-81% and Y2-61%), while those with teaching experience are the ones who most change their opinions in what concerns the

acceptability of mixing varieties, being the 1-5 years group the one with the most striking difference (Y1-30% and Y2-62%) (Appendix 6 – Table 16). It is interesting to note that in Guerra's study (2005), it was also found that the trainees of the group were more inclined to favor consistency over mixing varieties, when compared to the other ESP students.

Trainees were afterwards enquired on the role of NESTs and NNESTs in terms of preference for language students (Q20). In the questionnaire trainees were therefore asked to choose one of the following options regarding their opinion about who is more desirable as a language teacher for learners: NESTs, NNESTs, both NESTs and NNESTs, or it does not matter (Figure 4.2.). Roughly half of the subjects believe it is important students have both NESTs and NNESTs (Y1-41% and Y2-58%), followed afterwards by those who state that it does not matter (Y1-26% and Y2-33%). About a quarter of the subjects (26%) at the beginning of their degree believe though that NSs are preferable; however, by the end of the second year this percentage decreases drastically to four percent. Even though the participants in the questionnaire are almost entirely NNS of English, a very small fraction of the group believes that it is preferable that students just have NNESTs (Y1-7% and Y2-4%). These answers go very much in line with the inferiority complex referred to in Chapter 2, in which preference is given to the teacher who is a NS as well as to native varieties (as seen in the subjects' description of their own English use).

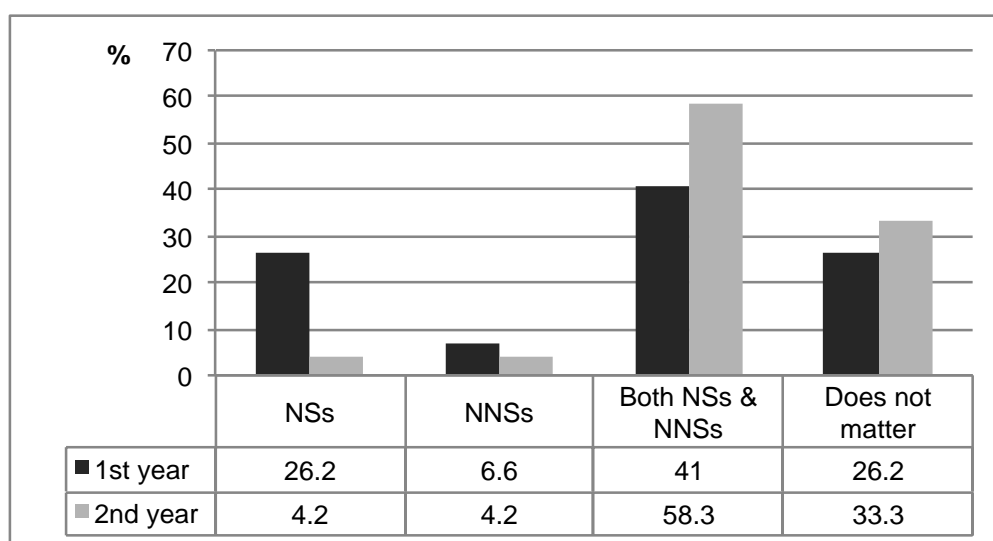


Figure 4.2. Preference for NS and/ or NNS English teachers – percentage

On the whole, it is visible that trainees believe students are motivated to learn English for a number of reasons, either for international use or for integrative, instrumental or assimilative reasons, not so much though for personal satisfaction. Regardless of what they believe to be students' motivations, there is a strong tendency at the beginning to focus on the consistency of language use when it comes to varieties; however, towards the end of the course, mixing varieties becomes more acceptable, exhibiting this way a more international perspective. The same is verified in what concerns the preference for NS and NNS teachers. Even though the majority mentions that both NESTs and NNESTs are preferable or that it does not matter, it is worth noting that, at the beginning of the course, a considerable number also values the role of NSs. In addition, throughout their degrees trainees never highly value the sole role of NNSs as preferable teachers; in other words, they never truly value themselves as the single role models to learn the language without the support of other NS colleagues.

4.6.3. Trainees' attitudes toward their role as teachers and ELT in general

The questionnaire also explores trainees' attitudes in what relates to their role as language educators and ELT in general. Taking this into account a number of notions are here considered, such as different language varieties and their position in ELT, the role of language teachers and what is their target, the importance of culture, and what is central to concentrate on, when it comes to each of the different language skills.

To begin with, participants were asked to consider several options in terms of language varieties (AmE, BrE, other native varieties, L2 varieties and a neutral variety of English not associated with a specific country), and rate each ones importance in ELT on a Likert scale ranging from very important to very unimportant (Q21). The two varieties with the most significant impact are BrE in first place and AmE in the second, with percentages for "very important/important" ranging between 94% and 100% (Table 4.7.). In contrast, the other three references to varieties are associated with elevated levels of neutrality, as it can be observed especially among first-year trainees, where more than half of the group chooses this option. A plausible explanation for this may have to do with the significant levels of unawareness regarding other varieties (as seen in Table 4.6.). It is worth noting though that

similarly to what is visible in terms of familiarity; in this case second-year trainees also learn to value more other varieties in ELT. For instance, over half of the second-year group believes that both other native varieties and a neutral variety are “very important/important” (60% and 55% respectively) for ELT, which represents an increase of around 25%, when compared to the first year. Despite this increased awareness, L2 varieties continue to have an insignificant expression in the Portuguese ELT scenario, with over a quarter of the entire group deeming them “unimportant/very unimportant”. Once again, lack of familiarity and/or geographic distance may play an important role in these attitudes.

Table 4.7. English varieties and their importance in ELT – percentage

1st year			
		N	%
21.1. AmE	Very important	33	54.1%
	Important	26	42.6%
	Neutral	2	3.3%
	Total	61	100.0%
21.2. BrE	Very important	47	77.0%
	Important	14	23.0%
	Total	61	100.0%
21.3. Other native varieties	Very important	5	8.8%
	Important	14	24.6%
	Neutral	35	61.4%
	Unimportant	2	3.5%
	Very unimportant	1	1.8%
	Total	57	100.0%
21.4. L2 varieties	Very important	3	5.2%
	Important	4	6.9%
	Neutral	31	53.4%
	Unimportant	17	29.3%
	Very unimportant	3	5.2%
	Total	58	100.0%
21.5. Neutral variety of English	Very important	6	10.3%
	Important	9	15.5%
	Neutral	31	53.4%
	Unimportant	11	19.0%
	Very unimportant	1	1.7%
	Total	58	100.0%

2nd year			
		N	%
21.1. AmE	Very important	29	60.4%
	Important	16	33.3%
	Neutral	1	2.1%
	Unimportant	2	4.2%
	Total	48	100.0%
21.2. BrE	Very important	40	83.3%
	Important	7	14.6%
	Unimportant	1	2.1%
21.3. Other native varieties	Total	48	100.0%
	Very important	7	14.9%
	Important	21	44.7%
	Neutral	15	31.9%
	Unimportant	3	6.4%
	Very unimportant	1	2.1%
21.4. L2 varieties	Total	47	100.0%
	Very important	5	10.4%
	Important	9	18.8%
	Neutral	21	43.8%
	Unimportant	11	22.9%
	Very unimportant	2	4.2%
21.5. Neutral variety of English	Total	48	100.0%
	Very important	9	18.8%
	Important	17	35.4%
	Neutral	18	37.5%
	Unimportant	4	8.3%
	Total	48	100.0%

The responses were afterwards crosstabulated with the variable time spent abroad to verify whether stays in a foreign country influence the way participants deem the importance of the several varieties in ELT (Appendix 6 – Tables 17, 18, 19, 20 and 21). Despite practically all subjects deeming AmE and BrE as “very important/important”, it is worth noting that, although not statistically relevant, it is only those who have been abroad that view these two varieties as “neutral or unimportant” (only 4 cases out 101). Taking into account the other varieties, those who have never traveled abroad are the ones who hold a more neutral opinion, with percentages ranging between nearly half and four-fifths of the total group. For example, when looking at other native varieties, neutrality varies between Y1-81% and Y2-71%. Furthermore, the difference between those who have and have not traveled, and who deem other native varieties as “very important/ important” is particularly significant. In the first year, 39% of those who have traveled choose this option, compared to only 19% of those who have not; as for second-year trainees, the gap further widens between those with and without experience abroad, 80% versus 24%. Regarding L2 varieties, in Y1 roughly half of the whole group remains neutral, subsequently followed by the opinion that these varieties are “unimportant” (27% for who has traveled and 35% for who has not); in Y2, those who have traveled are more or less divided between “very important/important” and “neutral”, with approximately 40% for each. On the other hand, those with no experience in other countries mainly hold a neutral opinion (53%) that is followed by considering these varieties as “unimportant/very unimportant” (41%). Lastly, the whole group of Y1 trainees perceives with a certain amount of hesitance the idea of a neutral variety of English unassociated with a specific country (just over 50%). Afterwards, one-third of those who are travelers deem it “very important/important”, while one-third of non-travelers believe it is “unimportant/very unimportant”. When considering travelers at the end of their degree, almost three-fifths consider a neutral variety as being “very important/important”; while non-travelers continue to maintain an equally divided opinion in terms of “very important/important” and “neutral” (47% for each).

When taking into consideration the variable ELT experience, similar tendencies can be found between those with and without teaching practice (Appendix 6 – Tables 22, 23, 24, 25 and 26). For instance, when taking a look at AmE and BrE, irrespective of the years of experience, these varieties are highly regarded by all; an example of that is how, in both the first and second year, 100% of those with 1-5

years and 11+ years of teaching experience deem AmE and BrE as “very important/important”. In the case of BrE in the first year, appreciation goes even further with 100% of the total responses regarding it as “very important/important”. The only group in which there is a decline in importance from the first to the second year is among those with no experience, falling by 2% in the case of AmE and 6% for BrE. In what concerns other native varieties, the levels of neutrality are considerably high among those with no or few experience, although there is a decrease from the first to the second year. For example, neutrality is expressed by 73% of respondents with no teaching experience in the first year, while in the second year it goes down to 44%; in the case of the 1-5 years group, there is also a reduction, from 64% to 23%. As a result of this, attitudes in favor (“very important/important”) increase considerably, from 26% to 50% among those with no teaching practice, from 32% to 69% among the 1-5 years group, and from 30% to 70% in the 6-10 years group. These changes of opinion are proof of an increasing international outlook towards other varieties of English. The same can be said for L2 varieties, although the trend is not as discernable as in the previous case. Similarly, the levels of neutrality are also high in both years; however, there is an increase in the categories of “very important/important”, especially among trainees with no experience (Y1-5% and Y2-22%) and those with 1-5 years (Y1-12% and Y2-46%). The increase in the former group is fairly considerable when considering the percentage in Y1 for “unimportant/very unimportant” is of 60% and then decreases to 39% in Y2. Lastly, taking on a neutral variety not associated with a given country is also met with relatively high levels of neutrality in the Y1 (e.g. over three-fifths of the responses for those with experience between one and ten years). However, the rise in terms of importance is also largely visible with increases varying between 22% (none experience) and 41% (1-5 years). The group that most agrees with the importance of a neutral variety is that with the most teaching experience (11+ years: Y1-50% and Y2-75%), which may reflect these trainees’ awareness to communicability, regardless of the variety chosen.

All in all, it can be argued that the two main standard varieties continue to be regarded as the central aspect for ELT, while on the opposite end lie L2 varieties. Despite this fact, there is an increasing awareness towards the international use of the English language that is visible from the first year to the second in what concerns the importance of other varieties as well as of a neutral variety. Furthermore, it can also

be put forth that those who have traveled are more open to other alternatives other than the two main standards, and that those with no or fewer teaching experience are more liable to changing their opinions from the beginning to the end of their courses. These results demonstrate how the different variables have an impact on how language is perceived and how they should be considered for teacher education courses, so as to recognize what aspects should be focused on with trainees.

Next, trainees were asked to rank accordingly from one to five (one being the most important and five the least important) what they find is more important to focus on in ELT (Q22). This question functions as a way to reiterate (or not) the answers from Q21 and consists in the following options:

- A standard variety (e.g. American or British English);
- Language taught as a Lingua Franca with a global dimension;
- Varieties from other countries – post-colonial or other emerging English varieties (e.g. Indian, Singaporean, Nigerian English);
- A syllabus where specific practical fields are focused on (e.g. business, tourism, technology, etc.);
- Other (where respondents could write what they wish).

Upon analyzing the answers, it is clear that to a certain extent they reiterate those from the previous question. On a ranking scale from first to fifth place, it is at the top two positions where change is visible when comparing those beginning and those ending their degrees, while the rest is maintained. Similarly to what was already confirmed, at the beginning, standard varieties are valued as the main element in ELT, whereas towards the end of the teacher programs a lingua franca perspective is increasingly recognized and valued, at least at a theoretical level (Table 4.8.).

Table 4.8. Ranking of most important aspects – percentage

	1 st year	%	2 nd year	%
1 st	Standard variety (e.g. BrE/AmE)	62	Lingua franca dimension	48
2 nd	Lingua franca dimension	38	Standard variety (e.g. BrE/AmE)	38
3 rd	Syllabus for practical field (e.g. business, tourism)	41	Syllabus for practical field (e.g. business, tourism)	42
4 th	Post-colonial/emerging varieties	62	Post-colonial/emerging varieties	60
5 th	Other	75	Other	96

Having a practical syllabus (referring to here as ESP) is ranked afterwards in third place, hence accentuating the instrumental use of the language, as it was likewise previously observed; while in fourth place can be found post-colonial varieties, which are once more judged as the least important. As for the “other” option, respondents were given the opportunity to make suggestions, of which the following stand out:

- “Reflecting on common mistakes made by Portuguese learners”;
- “Focusing on specific problems of the learners regarding English”;
- “Grammar structures and rules”;
- “Developing skills: writing, listening, speaking and reading”;
- “Creating communication situations”;
- “Teaching students how to communicate in English”;
- “Communication”;
- “Cultures from English speaking countries”;
- “Learning to respect other cultures”;
- “Students’ aims”;
- “To adapt to students’ aims”.

Considering these examples, there are four distinct ideas. Firstly, it is that of language and language skills, where emphasis is placed on certain difficulties or errors that learners may have or make, and the need to correct them; in other words, the prevalence of form over function. Secondly, the notion of communication and the need to get students to communicate is also highlighted, which contrastingly gives primacy to function over form. Thirdly, mention to culture is yet another essential issue in language learning. On the one hand, there is the traditional concept of culture

associated with EFL, such as the culture of the language one is learning (namely British or American culture); while on the other hand, there is also the understanding and consideration of other essential cultures if English is to be used as an international language, in which ICC plays a vital role. Lastly, reference is made to students' aims, an aspect that is many times forgotten due to the syllabus imposed, but which plays a crucial part in motivating and getting students to learn and use the language.

Taking into account these results, it can be said then that there is a strong tendency to favor standardization and form; but the reality is that there is also a growing awareness (especially from the beginning to the end of the programs) in what concerns international use and language function.

Moving ahead, trainees were subsequently asked to consider a number of statements regarding what they thought of their role as language teachers (Q23) and to classify them accordingly on a Likert scale from one to five: 1- strongly agree, 2- mostly agree, 3- undecided, 4- mostly disagree and 5- strongly disagree. Afterwards, the results of the statements were crosstabulated with the variables experience abroad and ELT experience, in order to see whether there are any relevant differences on how traveling and teaching practice affect respondents' view of their role as language professionals. The statements given in this part include:

I think...

- NS teachers play a fundamental role in the correct use of the language.
- NNS teachers play a fundamental role in the correct use of the language.
- I should spend more time getting students to communicate in English.
- I should spend more time getting students to obtain a native-like accent.
- I should spend more time trying to eradicate mistakes typical of European NNSs.
- It is important to teach that various cultures use English differently.
- It is important to teach English features that make one understood internationally and not only in some societies.

Regarding the first two statements, the role of NESTs and NNESTs in the correct use of the language is put into question. According to the respondents from both groups,

native and non-native teachers equally play a fundamental part in correct language use, with those “mostly/strongly agreeing” ranging well over the 80% mark (Table 4.9.)⁸⁶; however, when comparing the two types of ELT teachers, the preference for NESTs is slightly higher, as it was already verified in Q20. The following two statements (obtaining native-like accent and eradicating mistakes typical of European NNSs) are the ones that generate the most contradiction, with opinions ranging from one end of the scale to the other, along with relatively high percentages of undecidedness; nevertheless, difference between first and second-year trainees’ opinions is visible. In the first statement, roughly half of the first-year group (46%) “mostly agrees” with getting students to obtain a native like accent, while in the second year the tendency is for trainees to “mostly/strongly disagree” (42%). As for eradicating mistakes typical of European NNSs, about a third of the respondents in both groups seem undecided on this notion, most probably because of their uncertainty in what this statement involves. Even so, similar to what was verified in the previous statement, the percentage of those who “mostly/strongly agree” decreases slightly from the first to the second year by 6%, while the percentage of those who “mostly/strongly disagree” has a minor increase of 2%. In this sense, it can be argued that notions of nativeness and correctness, more strongly manifested in first-year trainees, give way to that of communicative effectiveness, as it is also established in the next three statements. It is clear, for instance, that spending more time trying to get students to communicate in English is one of the most important concerns for trainees, with the percentage of “mostly/strongly agreeing” reaching over 90% in both years. However for effective communication to take place in an international scenario, it is also vital: a) students understand various cultures use English differently and b) that they are taught specific features/strategies to make themselves understood internationally. In both cases, it is clear that trainees are alert to these notions with percentages starting at 80% and higher. These last three cases are an example, once more, of the growing tendency and increasing awareness, however little it may be, of function over form from the first to the second year.

⁸⁶ For a detailed and total description of the results from the Likert scale question (Q23), see Appendix 6 – Table 27.

Table 4.9. Trainees' opinions on the role of English teachers – percentage

	1st year	2nd year
NS teachers fundamental in the correct use of the language.	87% (strongly/mostly agree)	88% (strongly/mostly agree)
NNS teachers fundamental in the correct use of the language.	83% (strongly/mostly agree)	85% (strongly/mostly agree)
Spend more time getting students to obtain a native-like accent.	46% (mostly agree) 22% (undecided) 32% (strongly/mostly disagree)	27% (strongly/mostly agree) 31% (undecided) 42% (strongly/mostly disagree)
Spend more time trying to eradicate mistakes typical of European NNSs.	46% (strongly/mostly agree) 31% (undecided) 23% (strongly/mostly disagree)	40% (strongly/mostly agree) 35% (undecided) 25% (strongly/mostly disagree)
Spend more time getting students to communicate.	92% (strongly/mostly agree)	94% (strongly/mostly agree)
Important to teach how various cultures use English differently.	83% (strongly/mostly agree)	90% (strongly/mostly agree)
Important to teach features/ strategies that make one understood internationally.	92% (strongly/mostly agree)	93% (strongly/mostly agree)

When looking at the crosstabulations established with the variable experience abroad (Appendix 6 – Tables 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33 and 34), the percentages do not vary greatly on how first and second-year respondents view the role of NSs in correct language use, although in the second year those who said no to traveling slightly agree more with the role of NSs (88% compared to 87%). When taking into consideration non-native speakers' role in correct language use, the opposite is visible in the second year, with respondents who said yes to traveling agreeing more when compared to those who have not (87% in comparison to 82%). As for spending more time getting students to obtain a native speaker accent and eradicating mistakes typical of European speakers, both statements are met with relatively high levels of undecidedness by first and second-year trainees (ranging between a quarter and a third of the responses given). In the former case, when looking at the responses associated with “strongly/mostly agree”, the group that said no to traveling is the one in which answers most vary regarding NS accent. For instance, in Y1 the percentage reaches 56% for non-travelers, while in Y2 the number in favor of achieving a native

speaker accent or similar drops to a low 18%. As for those who said yes, percentages only vary between Y1-42% and Y2-32%. In comparison, when taking into consideration getting students to communicate in English, teaching how various cultures use English differently, and features that make speakers understood internationally, responses for “strongly/mostly agree” are much higher in both first and second-year trainees. In the second case, and contrary to what might be expected, it is noticeable that those who have not traveled are the ones who tend to agree more with teaching how English is used differently (Y1 and Y2-94%), while the percentage among those who have traveled is a bit lower (Y1-79% and Y2-87%). In the latter case, being understood internationally, when comparing both groups, it is among non-travelers that there is a considerable increase in terms of “strongly/mostly agreeing” (Y1-89% and Y2-100%). Bearing in mind these responses, in most cases there are no major differences between those who said yes or no to having gone abroad, although there is a greater oscillation from Y1 to Y2 among those who said no.

As for the crosstabulation with trainees’ experience in ELT, taking into account the first two statements in which are considered the roles of NESTs and NNESTs in the correct use of the language, it is interesting to note that those with no experience are the ones who mainly “strongly/mostly agree” – in the case of NESTs, both years have a percentage of 91%; while for NNESTs, percentages vary between Y1-91% and Y2-95% (Appendix 6 – Tables 35 and 36). As for getting students to obtain a native like accent, in both first and second-year trainees the tendency is for them to progressively disagree more with this statement as they gain more teaching experience (e.g. “mostly/strongly disagree” in Y1 – no experience has 39% and 11+ years has 75%; in Y2 – no experience has 34% and 11+ years has 63%), the only exception being those with 1-5 years of experience (possibly due to the fact that they have been teaching for a shorter period of time without having received any educational training before and, therefore, still carry some preconceived ideas of what aims should be obtained) (Appendix 6 – Table 37). In what regards the importance of teaching how various cultures use English differently, and features/strategies that make oneself understood internationally and not only in some societies, it can be argued that those with the greatest amount of experience (11+ years) are the ones who choose the options “strongly/mostly agree” the most, 100% in both cases (Appendix 6 – Tables 38 and 39). Moreover, and still regarding these two statements, it can be observed that trainees from Y1 and Y2 with no prior teaching experience are the ones

most receptive and susceptible to change, seeing as the percentage of “strongly/mostly agree” increases by 13% and 10% respectively for each statement, a reality not verified in the other groups.

Considering the responses gathered from these statements, it is understood that despite the continuing acknowledgement of NSs, NNESTs are likewise recognized as valid models of correct language use. Moreover, the diversity of English, communication in general, and communication in international scenarios are three paramount issues that these subjects entirely recognize as fundamental.

When reflecting on the variable experience abroad, regardless of having traveled or not out of the country, respondents value more or less in an equal way the role of NSs and NNSs in correct language use, and the need to get students to communicate. In what concerns achieving native speaker accents and eradicating errors characteristic of European speakers, the answers in both groups also go line and line, with percentages in favor decreasing from the first to the second year. Lastly, it is interesting to note that, although for both groups, there is an overall general consensus in instructing how English is used in different ways and how to communicate in international situations, those who denied having gone abroad agree more with teaching these issues, in comparison to who has traveled.

As for the variable ELT experience, those who have taught English for longer periods of time are the ones especially aware of the need for understanding and communication (most likely since students often remain silent or feel intimidated when speaking in the classroom, due to the mistakes that may be made); however, the opinions of participants with no experience are the ones most visibly molded from start to finish, as they have not yet been influenced by certain habits, and are open to new approaches and ways of looking at relevant issues.

In what concerns culture, this part observes the quantitative and qualitative data of respondents’ attitudes on both native and non-native cultures (Q24), to see whether they are more oriented toward native communities or assume a more international perspective. In the questionnaire, trainees were asked to rank from one to six (being one the most important and six the least important) how they view the teaching of different cultures, of which the following are included:

- American culture;

- British culture;
- Cultures from other English-speaking countries (e.g. Ireland, Canada, etc.);
- Cultures from L2 countries (e.g. India, Singapore, etc.);
- Other worldwide cultures (e.g. China, Germany, Brazil, etc.);
- Students' own culture (e.g. Portuguese in Portugal).

Although participants in the previous question widely recognized the significance of teaching how various cultures use English differently, when it comes to the actual teaching of culture, the two main cultures traditionally associated with EFL continue to assume leading positions in both years – British culture in first place and American in second (Table 4.10.)⁸⁷. It is worth noting though that in the second year both of these cultures loose some ground in favor of other ones, namely to other English-speaking cultures and L2 cultures. While L2 varieties were always previously neglected and deemed as the least important, when it comes to culture, preference is given to L2 cultures over other worldwide cultures (which appears in sixth place for both years). With this in mind, it can be argued that the teaching of culture in English language classes continues to be very much associated with nations where it is spoken, regardless of them being L1 or L2 countries. When taking into account students' own culture, responses from participants are primarily ranked between third and sixth place, although the tendency is for it to be positioned at a lower level. Bearing this in mind, it can then be claimed that some recognition is given to students' local/national culture; however, it is never fully recognized as being critical for the learning of the language.

It is worth mentioning that these results are comparable to those from Guerra (2005), who also enquired students on similar issues of culture. In his case study, preference was also manifested in favor of the British and American cultures (with 86% and 74% respectively deeming them “very important/important”), while ESL cultures, Portuguese culture and EFL cultures were at the other end of the scale (35%, 37% and 56%, respectively, were believed to be “unimportant/very unimportant”).

⁸⁷ For a detailed and total description of the results of the rankings of each culture from question 23, see Appendix 6 – Table 40.

Table 4.10. Most popular position chosen for each culture – percentage

	1 st year	2 nd year
British culture	1 st (82%)	1 st (69%)
American culture	2 nd (71%)	2 nd (65%)
Other English-speaking cultures	3 rd (56%)	3 rd (60%)
L2 cultures	4 th (41%)	4 th & 5 th (42% each)
Other worldwide cultures	6 th (54%)	6 th (54%)
Students' own culture	3 rd & 4 th (25% each)	6 th (27%)

In the interviews conducted, the notion culture was further developed on, by asking interviewees what cultures, issues or topics they believe are imperative to focus on in ELT. The responses received go beyond the strict set of options given in the questionnaire with answers varying among interviewees. On the one hand, one of the trainees refers to the importance of comparing different English-speaking cultures (mainly American and British), having as a point of departure students' own culture. However, reference is also made to how essential it is for ELT teachers to visit Britain or the US, for instance. According to the trainee, it is crucial teachers be familiar with the culture they teach in class, that they experience the “real culture” in loco to properly explain things in class and answer any doubts students may have.

INT_5: “I think it’s extremely important to compare both situations, because one thing that is accepted here might not be expected there. (...) I don’t particularly refer to only the UK, I try to link Portuguese culture with the British and American, the most common ones (...). For me, what really only matters is if it is from an English-speaking country. The only thing that makes me not choose another country, besides the United States or the UK, is that sometimes the English is not very clear and as materials don’t have any subtitles, I sometimes avoid using them because I am afraid the students will not understand. (...) The only thing that I criticize, and I also criticize myself, is that it is quite important to get to know the country (...) Culture is really really important (...) I think it’s very negative to you as a teacher to be teaching English and not knowing or having been to an English-speaking country. How can you explain things? (...) How can I talk about the Americans? From only the news? I need

to go there, even if it is only for three days or ten days, but I've been there, so I know. (...) Some of my colleagues, and I say 80% of them, have never been to an English-speaking country and they are teaching English. There are students in your classroom that have been to these countries and they ask you things and what are you going to say? I've never been there? (...) I know the UK and the United States, but what I know is far too tiny for what I should be teaching about the countries."

In addition to these ideas, reference is made as well to the need to adapt culture according to students' area of study, therefore avoiding the use of a so-called "postcard culture" based on icons and stereotypes.

INT_1: "It depends on the area we are teaching. I don't think we should separate culture from the area of study. I think the cultural issues should come naturally and not teach Christmas, for example, as a postcard. (...) Culture should come naturally as an area to explore differences. Sociolinguistic competence, for example, should come naturally. For instance, the names, how to treat people in English. In English there are not as many forms of treatment as in Portuguese and this is something cultural and not THE culture. Culture is something that comes in every aspect that we talk about. (...) We should not think about things as a stereotype."

In another interview, reference is made to Sociolinguistics and everyday topics, although relevance continues to be given to Big-C culture as well (e.g. literature and history), not only from the US and UK, but also from other English-speaking countries like Canada and Australia.

INT_6: "I think we should talk about literature and history, the capital-C culture, but also the sociolinguistic aspects (...) social topics, everyday information, I think all of those aspects should be approached. (...) Students mostly prefer that second type of information. (...) English is spoken all over the world, but in English-speaking countries we have Australia, which is very significant nowadays and Canada too."

In a final example, and going against the popularity indications in the questionnaires, importance is given to teaching other global cultures that differ from western society. Seeing as we live in a global village in which cultural aspects do not differ much between western countries, from one trainee's experience, students react positively when presented with issues that differ widely from their own.

INT_2: "I think everything is important, especially nowadays that we live in a global world. It's not just about what we do here or what we do there and if we think about the Western culture, there aren't many differences these days because it is kind of a global village. I think we should also include cultures that are really different from our own. I don't know, Indian, Chinese ... sometimes that's interesting. For example, I had the chance to learn, while I was teaching about food, about "bentos", something that is very common in China, which is when the mother's there (...) try to draw dolls with the food (...), so that when the kid looks at the plate they find it funny. It's a different way to look at food and I had never learned that. (...) They [the students] found it very funny. (...) I also had the experience with Bollywood, for example, which students also welcomed very well. (...) I think that everything that we can bring to the classroom (...) nowadays it's better if it is very far away from our culture, (...) it's exotic. Kids now are surrounded by information that comes from everywhere and so it's also interesting to know what's going on on the other side of the world."

In this sense, it can be construed that in the questionnaire preference is largely given to the two main L1 cultures, despite in the second year further acknowledgment being given to other cultures, as it is proven in the interviews. One explanation for this close affinity with L1 cultures may in great part have to do with the long tradition in ELT materials being mainly centered on the British culture (with frequent references made to the American culture as well, and on a few occasions, to other English-speaking cultures). Nonetheless, as communication in English is increasingly characterized as flexible and mutable nowadays, it becomes ever more important that learners know how to not only express themselves and interact in different situations, but also how to recognize and understand in what way different cultures function (regardless of the language associated with them). In the case of EFL classes in Europe, for instance, instead of chiefly concentrating on the British culture, more attention can (and should)

be paid to neighboring countries and/or to other member states of the EU. In addition, and as it was mentioned in the interviews, more consideration can also be given to Sociolinguistic issues and to little-c culture, as these two aspects also play an important role in achieving effective communication.

Trainees were lastly asked to consider each one of the English language skills (writing, speaking, reading and listening) separately in terms of what issues are most important to examine when teaching. One thing is to consider ELT issues in general; another is to deal with each skill individually, seeing as each one has its own specificities or preferable approaches. Bearing this in mind, there are five statements associated with each skill, which respondents had to assess on a Likert scale from one to five: 1- strongly agree, 2- agree, 3- undecided, 4- disagree and 5- strongly disagree. Afterwards, the answers obtained were crosstabulated with the two variables previously used – time spent abroad and ELT experience – so as to analyze whether these factors influence how trainees view the teaching of language skills. In addition, qualitative data is also taken into account, bearing in mind the information gathered from participants' feedback in the interviews.

Taking into consideration the first skill – writing, respondents were given five sentences to assess in terms of their opinion on standard, communicability and appropriateness (Q25):

- Write according to the American standard variety;
- Write according to the British standard variety;
- Write without grammar mistakes, even if American and British varieties are used interchangeably (e.g. lexis, spelling);
- Be a proficient writer (some mistakes are made, but communication is effective);
- Learn to write appropriately according to the context (genre/register).

From the answers obtained, it is possible to observe what trainees favor more, form or function of language when it comes to writing. For instance, in the first two sentences reference is made to the importance of writing according to one of the two main standards – American or British. Answers show that, in taking into account the two options, preference is given to the British standard, although the percentage of those

who “strongly agree/agree” with it decreases in the second year by 10%, while the percentage of those in favor of AmE has a very slight increase of 1% (Table 4.11.)⁸⁸. When comparing the answers of these two standards with the remaining three statements, the gap between results is quite large, nearly double or more when compared to AmE, for example. Over four fifths of the subjects acknowledge as well writing skills that go beyond consistency and the tendency is for this opinion to increase from the first to the second year of trainees’ studies. For instance, 83% and 81% in the Y1 and Y2 respectively reply that both varieties may be used interchangeably as long as no grammar mistakes are made (this statement is the only exception in which there is a minor decline from Y1 to Y2). Furthermore, the majority of the respondents also recognize communicative effectiveness and context, with percentages for “strongly agree/agree” surpassing the 90% mark in both years. Genre and register are features they believe to be the most essential when teaching language, with an increase from 95% in Y1 to 98% in Y2. In this sense, it can be argued that in relation to writing, function precedes form, seeing as communicative effectiveness is more associated with conveying messages successfully according to each specific setting, rather than simply following a specific standard.

Table 4.11. Writing skills – percentages for “strongly agree/agree”

	1 st year	2 nd year
AmE standard	43%	44%
BrE standard	73%	63%
No grammar mistakes, but AmE/BrE used interchangeably	83%	81%
Proficient writer (some mistakes, communication effective)	90%	94%
According to context (genre/register)	95%	98%

As for the crosstabulations, beginning with the variable time spent abroad, when analyzing the two main standards, the tendency is for those who have never traveled to “strongly agree/agree” more with these statements (AmE: Y1-55%, Y2-47%; BrE: Y1-83%, Y2-59%), while those who have traveled are more inclined to “disagree/strongly disagree (the only exception being second-year trainees in what concerns BrE) (see Appendix 6 – Tables 42 and 43). As for the remaining three

⁸⁸ For a detailed and total description of the answers regarding writing skills in question 25, the results of the Likert scale can be found in Appendix 6 – Table 41.

statements, when looking at them from the perspective of the total percentage of those who “strongly agree/agree”, trainees who have traveled to foreign countries are the ones most in favor of allowing/teaching students to use AmE and BrE interchangeably, to be proficient writers even with some mistakes and writing according to context (see Appendix 6 – Tables 44, 45 and 46). These answers prove then how traveling broadens trainees’ minds in what concerns expectations from language learners, being communication the main factor considered, especially when it comes to the awareness of genre and register.

When analyzing each of the statements with the variable ELT experience (Appendix 6 – Tables 47, 48, 49, 50 and 51), it can be argued that, on the subject of abiding to standards (AmE and BrE), those with no or few teaching experience are the ones who most “strongly agree/agree”, while the percentage tends to decrease among the groups with more experience. As for using AmE and BrE interchangeably without grammar mistakes, those without any experience are the ones who most change their opinion from the first to the second year in favor of allowing the mixing of varieties (a 7% increase for “strongly agree/agree” – Y1-76%, Y2-83%). It is interesting to note as well that for the last two statements (being a proficient writer and writing according to context), those with more practice in teaching are usually the ones who most “strongly agree/agree” in both years (the only exception being the Y1 trainees with 11+ years in being a proficient writer, the rest have a percentage of 100%). In this sense, it can be contended that those with none or little teaching experience are more inclined to follow certain standards, when compared to the more experienced ones; although, it is true too that those who have not taught yet are also more open to change and to view teaching differently, as they have not yet been influenced by in-classroom practices. As for the respondents with more teaching practice, these seem to value the notion of communicability above all, regardless of language per se being correct or consistent. Seeing as learners many times feel intimidated in using another language other than their own, more experienced teachers are preoccupied in getting them to actually use the language, rather than focusing on specific linguistic inconsistencies. In other words, more importance is given to genre and register – learning how to adapt language and produce texts according to the various contexts.

Taking into consideration the responses from the interviews, participants claim that writing is one of the most difficult skills to reflect upon, given the difficulties in getting students to actually write and afterwards having to evaluate

them. Nevertheless, their feedback goes in line with the answers received in the survey. In the majority of the cases, importance is given to writing as a process, in which texts are cohesively structured and the message is clearly conveyed, regardless of abiding to a single standard variety. Although there are cases in which inconsistency is not well looked upon, and reference is made to how students should be aware of the differences between the two main varieties. Some examples include:

INT_5: “Vocabulary is extremely important (...) One of the things that I always mention is that they [the students] need to follow a rule. If they speak the American [variety], they need to write the American [variety]. (...) I need to be careful, if I start writing my text in British, I should finish writing my text in British.”

INT_4: “I think if the student is able to write, even with some mistakes or some errors, if they are able to transmit the idea, as if they are writing in their mother tongue that would be great. But it is difficult to happen. (...) I think it is okay to mix different varieties as long as they are conscious that they are using different varieties.”

INT_2: “The most important thing is that you should never ask for something that you haven’t shown them [the students] yet. If I want them to write a narrative, I have to show them a narrative first and I have to go through that narrative to see how it is built, what is involved, what is the grammar in the text, everything. There is a lot of work to be done before I actually ask them to write anything. (...) We also have to build the context, we need to talk about the subjects, we have to watch films, listen to texts, talk, until we get to the point in which we write the first draft together. (...)

I have colleagues who cross out the word ‘vacation’ when students write it instead of ‘holidays’, I really don’t care. As long as it is well written without any grammar mistakes, there is coherence and the text is well built, I don’t mind at all whatever variety they use.”

INT_1: “Writing is a process that depends on many factors and issues. It depends on the reading, it depends on the way you are able to organize your thoughts and it

should be practiced from the early stages. (...) Register and organization are much more important [than standardization], it is the key for the [writing] process.”

INT_6: “I think it’s important not to look at writing as a product, but as a process in which we teach students how to plan, monitor and evaluate their process. (...) I don’t focus on those kinds of aspects, it’s really unimportant to me if they use ‘lift’ or ‘elevator’, it’s the same. Of course sometimes in the seventh grade you need to talk about the differences between BrE and AmE, but past that stage of presenting the difference of vocabulary, it’s really really unimportant for me if they choose one variety or the other.”

INT_4: “[It is important for] letting them [the students] practice their writing, more than just accuracy. I think it’s much more important to get them to write and let their imagination flow. Sometimes they build up a resistance in terms of writing especially.”

Taking into account speaking skills (Q26), both quantitative and qualitative data are analyzed as well. Similarly to what was previously done, the results received are first of all analyzed and then crosstabulated with the variables experience aboard and ELT experience. In addition, interviewees’ responses are also further contemplated so as to establish comparisons with the answers from the survey.

The five statements for respondents to consider in terms of oral skills touch on issues like the importance of nativeness, communicability and appropriateness, of which are included:

- Achieve a NS accent or similar;
- Be a proficient speaker, even if with a Portuguese accent;
- Be a proficient speaker, even if some mistakes (grammar or pronunciation) are made, but no hindrance in communication;
- Develop communicative strategies (e.g. repetition, paraphrasing) to communicate effectively in a wide number of situations;

- Learn to use language appropriately according to the situations (formal/informal).

When comparing the opinions of first and second-year trainees for each of these statements, the percentage of those who “strongly agree/agree” always increases⁸⁹; the only exception being the first option – attaining a native speaker accent (Table 4.12.). In this case, it is the percentage of those who “disagree/strongly disagree” that rises considerably from 20% in Y1 to 35% in Y2, which manifests the decline in abiding to native speaker standards (it is worth noting that percentages for “strongly agree/agree” never surpass the 48% mark in both groups). The following two statements – being a proficient speaker with a Portuguese accent and being a proficient speaker, who makes some mistakes, but communication is clear – are the ones in which those who “strongly agree/agree” increase the most from Y1 to Y2. While in the first year responses are in the 80 percentile, in the second, both reach the 90 percentile, being the latter statement the one in which there is the highest increase (by 12%). As for the last two statements – developing communicative strategies and using language accordingly to different situations these are the ones that respondents most agree with in terms of importance, with over 95% “strongly agreeing/agreeing”.

Table 4.12. Speaking skills – percentages for “strongly agree/agree”

	1 st year	2 nd year
NS accent or similar	48%	46%
Proficient speaker with a Portuguese accent	85%	92%
Proficient speaker with some mistakes, but communication effective	84%	96%
Develop communicative strategies	95%	96%
Use language appropriately according situations	95%	98%

Bearing in mind these responses, and comparing them with those for writing skills, results are similar in what concerns notions of nativeness/standard, communicability and appropriateness. Instead of stressing the need to obtain/imitate a native speaker accent (whatever model it may be) preference is given to communication. Successful interaction does not depend on mimicking how others speak, but on being a

⁸⁹ For a detailed and total description of the answers regarding speaking skills in question 26, the complete results of the Likert scale can be found in Appendix 6 – Table 52.

competent user of the language, knowing how to resort to different communicative strategies when necessary, and adapting the language according to the context and its interlocutors. Moreover, English accents with traces of one's own mother tongue do not usually impede communication; instead, they preserve the speaker's identity and help other interlocutors understand with whom they are dialoging.

Despite respondents' awareness to these central issues, it is interesting to note that their opinions diverge when it comes to assessing their own English and what is expected from students. While trainees believe native speaker accents are not as important for students, when it comes to assessing their own English, most of them do not associate it as being "tainted" with traces from the Portuguese (only 10% responded favorably in describing their English as a mixture of BrE/AmE with traces from the Portuguese); instead, the great majority describes it as being similar to AmE or BrE, or with influences from both.

Like what has been done with writing skills, these responses were also crosstabulated with the variables experience abroad and ELT experience, in order to verify whether these have any influence in the answers obtained.

In the case of the first variable – experience abroad, when taking a look at the total percentage of responses for each statement, the trainees who usually most "strongly agree/agree" with these are those who have spent time in a foreign country (Appendix 6 – Tables 53, 54, 55, 56 and 57). It is interesting though that, for the first statement (attaining a native accent or similar), when comparing the total percentage of responses of those who said yes and no to traveling, the portion of those who most "strongly agree/agree" are trainees who have been abroad (Y1-35% and Y2-29%); however, this same group is also the one to mostly "disagree/strongly disagree" (Y1-23% and Y2-19%). Furthermore, when comparing the two groups of trainees – those who have traveled versus those who have not – it is curious how the ones who most change their minds from Y1 to Y2 are trainees who have not spent anytime abroad. For instance, when taking into consideration the topic on being a proficient speaker with a Portuguese accent, there is a 7% increase (Y1-26% and Y2-33%) among non-travelers who "strongly agree/agree"; while among those who have traveled there is actually a very slight decline (Y1-59% and Y2-58%). Another more clear example is the statement on being a proficient speaker, who makes some mistakes but is still able to transmit the message clearly, the increase among those who have never traveled and answer "strongly agree/agree" is of roughly twenty percent, from 63% in Y1 to

94% in Y2; while the increase of those who have traveled is much lower (Y1-93% and Y2-97%). In the last statement – using language appropriately –, however, the difference between trainees who have and have not traveled is minimal (the percentage of those who “strongly agree/agree” is always above the 95% mark), indicating how the importance of language appropriateness is transversal regardless of experience abroad. Bearing in mind these answers, it can be suggested that those who have spent time abroad are more likely to agree with issues of communicability; while issues of appropriateness are deemed fundamental by both groups, regardless of previous travels. Seeing as non-travelers are also the group whose answers most oscillate from Y1 to Y2 in favor of agreeing with the statements (with the exception of the first statement), it can also be presumed that the master programs and traineeships play some part in this change of opinion.

As for the variable ELT experience, differences can also be found between those with more and less teaching practice (Appendix 6 – Tables 58, 59, 60, 61 and 62). For instance, in what concerns achieving a native speaker accent or similar, those with none or 1-5 years of experience are more likely to “strongly agree/agree” with this idea (over 50% in Y1 and Y2). In comparison, when considering being a proficient speaker with a Portuguese accent, in the first year, the group that most “strongly agrees/agrees” is those with no teaching experience (95%), while in the second year it is those with more experience (6-10 years and 11+ years) who mostly “strongly agree/agree” (100% for both). As for the importance of being a proficient speaker who makes some mistakes, but is able to convey the message, when comparing each of the groups with different years of teaching experience, it is those with none that most change their mind from Y1 to Y2, with a 14% increase (Y1-81% and Y2-95%). All the other groups have relatively lower variations or none even (e.g. 100% of those with 11+ years “strongly agree/agree” with this statement in Y1 and Y2). The same can also be verified when referring to communicative strategies and using language appropriately. One hundred percent of those with more experience (6-10 years and 11+ years) “strongly agree/agree” with these two concepts in both Y1 and Y2. As for the other two groups (none and 1-5 years of experience), even though they are not unanimous in their answers, they also widely recognize the importance of these two notions, with percentages ranging over the 90% mark in both years.

Bearing in mind these answers, it can be said that those with more experience tend to be set in their opinions and recognize the importance of issues related with

communication and appropriateness; while those with no or fewer experience, in addition to being preoccupied with these two issues, also consider nativeness an aspect to reflect on (in the first year at least this is more visible). Nevertheless, it is also important to note that trainees with no teaching experience are particularly more susceptible to changing their opinions from Y1 to Y2, meaning that teacher programs once more play a significant role in molding teachers' opinions and attitudes.

In what regards the interviews, participants' views follow the opinions demonstrated in the questionnaire, by placing particular emphasis on getting students to communicate. Trainees believe that communication is more relevant than imitating native speaker accents or even being grammatically correct, as long as the message is clearly transmitted. Seeing as many times there is a relative shyness or hesitation from students when speaking in front of a class, these are relevant issues that should be developed and fostered in the classroom. This being said, some of the main ideas manifested by interviewees, include:

INT_5: "I try to get them to use the correct interrogative and negative forms, the correct grammatical forms, without them thinking. (...) I make them use the language in a very intuitive way. (...) One of the things that I try to focus on, through drama activities, is to make them feel comfortable when talking, to make them feel less shy, and to involve them in the activities, because sometimes they are afraid of making mistakes. (...)

INT_1: "I think we should not focus on errors, on mistakes, although it is important to take some time to correct [them] perhaps later. We should try to give the students the time and the place to communicate, to express their ideas and not be afraid of making mistakes. That is the most important."

INT_2: "We have to make the students speak, they don't like to speak. They are very reluctant to speak, so what is important is to make them speak. Little by little try to find ways to guide them to speak better. (...) That's impossible [trying to achieve a NS accent], we will never be able to get a native accent. We will of course help them pronounce the words the best way, but it's impossible to be a NS."

INT_3: “It is very important to tell them [students] that speaking skills are very important to communicate, that it doesn’t matter if they make some mistakes, that it’s normal, it’s part of the learning process of a language; so we really try to make them talk a lot.”

INT_6: “I think it’s important to teach them strategies that make them feel comfortable when communicating, like fix-up strategies. I always tell them if they want to communicate, they should, even if they are not so sure that they will be using correct, perfect English. They should communicate and then at the end of that I can give them feedback. (...) I think it [accent/pronunciation] is important when it’s an obstacle to communication, if you cannot understand the student because of their rough pronunciation. In that case I would advise them, tell them where they went wrong and show them how they can improve.”

Lastly, considering listening and reading skills (Q27), another set of five statements were presented for participants to reflect on in terms of the importance of nativeness and plurality in different listening and reading materials, such as written texts, audio files and films/documentaries. After evaluating the responses from first and second-year trainees, this was followed by the crosstabulation of the variables traveling abroad and ELT experience, so as to finally establish comparisons with participants’ feedback in the interviews. Bearing this in mind, the statements presented include:

- American written texts, audio files and films/documentaries;
- British written texts, audio files and films/documentaries;
- Written texts, audio files and films/documentaries produced in other NS countries (Australia, Canada, etc.);
- Written texts, audio files and films/documentaries produced in Postcolonial countries that also use English (e.g. India, South Africa, etc.);
- Written texts, audio files and films/documentaries produced in NNS countries (e.g. Portugal).

Of all the options given in terms of teaching materials, the most popular in both years are those produced in Britain, with percentages for “strongly agree/agree” ranging

90% and over, followed relatively close behind by materials produced in the US (Y1-92% and Y2-86%), and afterwards by resources created in other native speaker countries (Y1-90% and Y2-85%) (Table 4.13.). Even though these are the top three choices among second-year trainees as well, the share of those who maintain the same opinion decreases. In contrast, there is an increasing recognition of materials produced elsewhere, namely in postcolonial countries (Y2-60%) and in non-native speaker countries (Y2-60%); however, these are also cases in which there is a higher share of undecidedness, especially in the first year where percentages vary between 24% and 41%, respectively (Appendix 6 – Table 63). As for materials produced in traditionally proclaimed EFL countries, the increase of respondents who “strongly agree/agree” in the second year is particularly noticeable (by 20%), which indicates, for example, the emerging acknowledgment of locally produced materials. This significant increase may have to do with trainees’ in-classroom experience as student teachers, in which besides using textbooks, they also need to produce and develop their own teaching materials. This activity not only stimulates creativity, but also the appreciation for the tasks and issues that need to be kept in mind when developing personalized resources.

Table 4.13. Listening and reading skills – percentages for “strongly agree/agree”

	1 st year	2 nd year
American materials	92%	86%
British materials	95%	90%
Materials produced in other NS countries	90%	85%
Materials produced in postcolonial countries	54%	60%
Materials produced in NNS countries	40%	60%

In what concerns the crosstabulation of these results with experience abroad (Appendix 6 – Table 64, 65, 66, 67 and 68), when taking into consideration those who “strongly agree/agree” with American and British listening and reading materials, the difference between those who said “yes/no” to having traveled is minimal, although there is a slight advantage in favor those who answer “yes” (with answers nearing 90% and over). When comparing the evolution from Y1 to Y2, contrary to what would be expected, the percentage of those who “strongly agree/agree” decreases more among those who answered “no” (decreasing by 12% for American materials

and 7% for British) rather than with those who said “yes” (which decreased by 3% and 5%). As for materials produced in other native speaker countries, the tendency is for trainees who have traveled to “strongly agree/agree” more with these types of resources when compared to those who have not, as can be seen by the 10% increase from the first to the second year (Y1-84% to Y2-94%). In contrast, those who replied “no” to traveling are relatively indecisive regarding other native materials, with nearly a quarter of them (in both years) manifesting their undecidedness. When it comes to listening and reading materials produced in postcolonial countries, opinions seem a bit erratic. For example, on a positive note, there is a relatively large increase for “strongly agree/agree” from Y1 to Y2 by those who have traveled (46% to 71%). However, when taking into account the group who replied “no” to having traveled, from one year to another there is a considerable drop in the “strongly agree/agree” slot (from 72% to 31%) and a significant increase in terms of undecidedness, with roughly two-fifths of the responses. This notion of uncertainty is equally visible when observing materials from non-native countries (like Portugal, for instance). In general, two-fifths of the respondents also display a certain degree of indecisiveness (with the exception of second-year trainees who have traveled, 25%). It is worth noting that in this case, trainees who answered “yes” to traveling are the ones who most change their opinion throughout their course in terms of “strongly agreeing/agreeing” with non-native materials (Y1-39% and Y2-68%), while the percentage of those who said “no” increases only slightly (Y1-41% and Y2-47%).

In terms of teaching experience, there are some tendencies that can be delineated between trainees with no or few ELT experience, and those with more practice (Appendix 6 – Tables 69, 70, 71, 72 and 73). In what concerns both American and British listening and reading resources, these continue to be the two most popular choices, even though the percentage of “strongly agreeing/agreeing” decreases from Y1 to Y2. For example, in the specific case of American materials, the percentage for “strongly agree/agree” decreases from Y1 to Y2 mainly among trainees with 1-5 and 11+ years of experience (by 19% and 25% respectively), while the proportion of those with none or 6-10 years of practice increases slightly (by 3% and 1%). A similar pattern may also be verified with British materials, in which the greatest decline is verified in the group with 1-5 years of experience (by 19%), while the largest increase is among those with no practice (by 9%). As for those with the most teaching experience (11+ years), 100% in both years “strongly agree/agree” with

the use of British materials, which reveals a strong association with the standard. In what regards materials from other native speaker countries, the same tendency is once more observed. The biggest rise in the options “strongly agree/agree” is among those with no experience (Y1-71% and Y2-89%), followed afterwards by the 6-10 years group (Y1-70% and Y2-82%), while the biggest fall is unexpectedly with the 11+ years group (Y1-100% and Y2-88%). Similarly, when taking a look at materials produced in postcolonial countries, the trend is for respondents’ opinions to increase favorably in practically all groups (the only exception being once again the 11+ years group, in which there is a decline from 100% to 63%). As for the largest increase, it is once again visible among trainees from the no experience (Y1-43% and Y2-56%) and 6-10 years group (Y1-50% and Y2-64%). Lastly, when considering materials from NNS countries, the results do not diverge much from the previous cases. There is a general increase in favor of these materials in practically all groups, with the exception of those with the most teaching practice (11+ years: Y1-75% and Y2-38%). In contrast, the largest increase is observable yet again among respondents with none (Y1-33% and Y2-50%) and 1-5 years of experience (Y1-46% and Y2-77%).

Considering the answers collected, it can be determined that the group of trainees with no teaching experience are the ones who have an overall higher tendency from year one to year two to strengthen their opinions in terms of “strongly agree/agree” in the different types of listening and reading materials. Similarly to what was verified in the other skills, when compared to those with more years of practice, these trainees are particularly more receptive to different views and approaches. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that throughout all levels of experience, the link with native materials continues to be particularly strong. These results are not unforeseen when considering that over the decades, ELT in Portugal has been greatly influenced by the British variety, not only due to its geographic proximity, but also because of the importance people have given to institutions like the British Council or the Cambridge English exams (e.g. Key for Schools), as well-known and prestigious with worldwide recognition.

There may be two plausible reasons for this preference, especially when considering those with no experience and those with more years of practice. In the former case, it may be argued that, when trainees enroll in teaching programs, it is common for them to already have an opinion about what is the appropriate English that should be taught, and many times it is associated with the English instruction they

believe to have received throughout their formal schooling instruction (considering the average age of respondents, BrE was the central variety taught in Portuguese schools at the time, and in part still continues to be). In the latter case, the issue of the English instruction received may likewise be considered, however, more experienced trainees may also be influenced by the use of ready-made materials (such as textbooks, activity books and audiovisual resources). Major ELT publishers have long played an important role in the dissemination of teaching materials; not only do they facilitate these professionals' lives with complete teaching packages, but they also guarantee a high degree of quality, by reassuring teachers of the correct use of the language; hence, functioning as models for different skills. These two issues may be of particular relevance for trainees who feel uncomfortable or who doubt their own language skills, as they can find in these materials the confidence necessary to teach. It is worth noting that, in addition to British/American resources, the considerable amount of confidence also placed on materials from other native speaker countries, demonstrates trainees' openness to other native varieties of English. However, when alluding to materials based on L2 Englishes, similarly to what has been previously verified, there is still a certain degree of uncertainty, unfamiliarity or even discomfort, and because of this, they are not as popular as listening and reading models; however, there is a growing recognition of their importance, particularly by those who have traveled, and by those with fewer or no teaching experience. The same can be said for resources created in non-native countries; this growing awareness of the importance of materials produced elsewhere is particularly imperative, seeing as only locally/nationally produced resources can contemplate learners' specific needs.

When taking a look at the responses from the interviews, the reactions received are comparable to the results obtained from the questionnaire. Although interviewees mention the importance of the Internet nowadays as essential for developing teaching resources (e.g. YouTube, magazines/newspapers, worksheets), strong emphasis continues to be placed on British and American based materials. In terms of reading activities, it is common for trainees to use native resources, which are subsequently adapted taking into account their students' needs; and, in what concerns listening skills, nativeness is the preference. At a certain point in the interviews it is even mentioned how students (and their parents) expect to have contact with the two main varieties in terms of audiovisual activities. In this sense, despite these trainees (as NNSs of the language) recognizing their role as qualified

teachers in the classrooms, as it is seen in the questionnaire, they still continue to believe students should have some contact with standard British or American accents/pronunciations. Bearing in mind this feedback, some examples of the main ideas stressed throughout the several interviews include the following:

INT_2: “I’ve got a lot of things from editors [publishers] that are sent to teachers. Some of them are very good materials – textbooks, posters and videos. (...) Sometimes when I can’t find something that I need, I need to make them [the materials] myself. But most of oral recorded texts, most of them are by NSs. Nevertheless, sometimes editors send us, and this is getting very common, especially in ESOL preparation materials, we’ve got a lot of examples of non-native people speaking. (...) Sometimes students find it [NNS accents] funny. They say, ‘But WOW, their accent is terrible!’ @@ (...) They understand immediately if they are native or not. (...) They sometimes react [towards NNS materials], ‘What’s the point? They should put perfect British so we could follow.’ Sometimes it takes some time to convince them that English is English. @@ (...) Sometimes the parents still ask us, ‘Are you going to teach British or American English?’ It’s just English.”

INT_3: “I mostly use videos from YouTube, some parts of movies, debates, discussions, documentaries, and commercials. I also use texts I find on the Internet. (...) They are mostly American and British materials.”

INT_4: “I don’t consider I have much experience in teaching, but in the previous years I was really used to follow the book, it’s a comfort zone, but it brings some problems. (...) Sometimes books are detached from reality and students feel it. That may be demotivating. (...) Now I’m using more Internet website materials. I try to adapt them to the purpose of the contents of the lesson. (...) Usually they [the materials] are produced by NSs, I am referring to websites or original texts. Then I might adapt or change some parts, and make some questions, so in a way I work with some materials from outside the classroom.”

INT_5: “I play lots of different games with students, games in which they use realia.”

INT_6: “We [in Portugal] do have some good language textbooks, they are getting better lately. But, the Internet is a great source; of course I need to be critical about the things I find there. I use everything, from worksheets, presentations, songs (...) The videos and songs I prefer when they are produced by NSs, although in terms of worksheets, for instance, I don’t. Usually I use worksheets from other teachers and I think that usually they are not NSs; mostly I also use from other Portuguese English teachers. Another thing I look for on the Internet are texts, and in that case, I prefer NSs’ products – newspaper articles, for instance.”

4.7. Summary and final remarks

This chapter began by presenting the two main research questions of the study, and was followed by a description of the research context, the quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection, and a description of the participants. Only afterwards was the collected data analyzed and discussed.

Both the survey and the semi-structured interviews played a crucial role in understanding how future language teachers identify themselves as teachers as well as how they apprehend the nature of communication and language in ELT. From the feedback received from this particular group of teacher trainees, several ideas can be drawn at various levels.

First of all, as prospective language educators, trainees mainly identify themselves as speakers of BrE and/or AmE, the two varieties they are also most familiar with. Despite this association with the two major standards, these trainees acknowledge the role of English as an international language that belongs to all those who speak it, especially when most interactions in English take place among NNSs.

When considering their opinions on students’ motivations for learning English, these are centered on several grounds, namely for international, integrative, instrumental and/or assimilative reasons (not so much for personal motives). In terms of what they expect from students’ language production, it is interesting how, at the beginning, trainees tend to favor the consistency of variety use, while at the end, they demonstrate a certain openness to the mixing of different varieties. This flexibility is

also visible in the importance given to both NESTs and NNESTs in a students' educational path; however, even though practically all participants are NNSs of the language, only very few believe that students should have contact only with NNESTs throughout their schooling experience. In this sense, there seems to be a certain inferiority complex, as trainees believe some type of contact should be established with NSs of the language.

Trainees also demonstrate a similar attitude when reflecting on their role as teachers and on ELT in general. For instance, when considering language varieties and their importance, preference is once more given to AmE and BrE, although there is a growing awareness of the importance of other varieties from the first to the second year of their studies. The same can be seen when in the first year, the majority of trainees state that focusing on a standard variety is the most important, while, in the second year, they already acknowledge a *lingua franca* dimension as number one. This goes in line with the fact that participants also recognize the diversity of English and the importance of communication in general and communication in international scenarios as paramount issues to develop on in ELT.

On the issue of culture, preference is once more given to the two main L1 cultures, although in the second year further acknowledgment is given to other English-speaking cultures. Unfortunately, students' own culture and other worldwide cultures seem to be the least recognized in language learning classrooms.

When considering the several language skills developed and practiced, respondents have several opinions. In what concerns writing, contrary to what has been seen in terms of preference for AmE and BrE, in this case, trainees believe that context (genre/register) is the most important issue alongside being a proficient writer (even if some mistakes are made). As for speaking, preference is once more manifested in favor to of teaching how to use language according to each situation and how to cultivate effective communicative strategies. For trainees it is much more important to get students to speak, regardless of them having a native speaker accent or similar; essentially what matters is being able to communicate effectively, even if with some mistakes. Finally, when comparing listening/reading skills with speaking and writing, the opposite can be verified. In this case, trainees are clearly more inclined to favor British, American or other native-produced materials. These answers follow what was previously analyzed – the idea that students should have access to Standard Native English, where written and audio(visual) texts function as models in

terms of correct English.

As for the crosstabulations established, it can be argued that traveling abroad on the whole (although not in every case) does open up trainees' perspectives in terms of language teaching and language use. Furthermore, teaching experience also plays an important role in how ELT is perceived. From the responses obtained, it is visible that those with no or fewer teaching experience are the ones more open to changing their points of view on the numerous issues touched upon in the questionnaire. On the opposite side, those with more experience are less inclined to modifying their positions; nonetheless, although in some cases their attitudes are still based on standard, in others they are more open when it comes to students' use of language – being the main issue, getting students to communicate in English, for example.

In this sense, it can be argued that, on the whole, this particular group of trainees is aware of the current role English plays as a *lingua franca* in today's society, giving particular emphasis to communication skills. However, they still continue to also associate language with specific standards, especially when taking into consideration culture and fixed forms of language.

Even though these answers focus on this particular group of trainees, some of them can perhaps be transposed to the general population of teacher trainees in Portugal. If these responses are an indication of how future language teachers feel, a lot can be done at the level of teacher education programs to help trainees understand their value as language teachers. As NNESTs they play a key role in students' learning process and it is important that they understand that. Furthermore, students' language and culture can also be further embraced in the classroom, an issue that is not strongly considered by these trainees.

With these issues in mind, chapter five contemplates what approaches can be taken within teaching programs for trainees to develop a more ELF-aware perspective that can meet students half way in terms of their needs and struggles, as well as prepare them for today's current use of English.

Chapter 5

Taking on ELF in teacher education programs: a proposal

“As human beings we are able to change our behaviour. The idea that we act as free agents is fundamental to our self-conception.”
(Coulmas 2005: 1)

“ELF is new just like Cubism was new. It’s really difficult to convince people that ELF is appropriate, that it’s fine, that it’s beautiful.”
(Sifakis 2014c)

5.1. Introduction

The previous chapter presented and analyzed the findings from the study on pre-service teacher trainees’ opinions on English language in general and ELT in specific. Among the several questions asked throughout the questionnaire and interviews, it was concluded that respondents show some openness and awareness in what concerns the international use of the language; however, in other cases, their attitudes still continue restrained to a standard point of view. Bearing this in mind, this chapter begins by considering the specific case of teacher education programs in Portugal, and whether they include the concept of ELF (from the information gathered in the course programs made available online and the responses from the interviews).

Afterwards, teacher education is taken into consideration as well as its fundamental role in contributing to the development of teachers not only as “critical educators”, but also as “transformative intellectuals”, as put forth by Guilherme (2002). With this in mind, the notions of “training” and “development” are taken into account, along with their respective differences and impact on future language teachers. More attention is given to the latter term, however, as it has a more long-held effect on teachers, hence contributing to their understanding of teaching and of their role as teachers.

Subsequently, it is argued how there is the need to go beyond a critical perspective so as to assume a more transformative outlook (Sifakis 2014a). Bearing this in mind, Mezirow’s transformative learning perspective (Mezirow 1991, 1995,

1998, 2000) is explored as a model that can essentially contribute to change adult learners' "meaning perspectives", by promoting a type of "premise reflection", which ultimately leads to the autonomy, self-learning and empowerment of the individual.

To conclude, based on Mezirow's approach, the five stage ELF-aware transformative framework developed by Sifakis (2007, 2009) is here explored as a realistic and practical model that in addition to in-service teacher programs, can also be applied to pre-service teacher programs. In view of this, each of the five stages are separately considered and further expanded on when deemed relevant. The aim is to basically grasp the essential aspects that are developed, so that participants can become fully aware of what is involved in the ELF debate as well as its several pedagogical implications, so that in the end, a decision can be made on whether it may be applied to their specific teaching context.

5.2. ELF awareness in Portuguese teacher education programs

As it has been observed throughout the dissertation, developing an ELF perspective contributes not only to a wider understanding of the diversity of the uses of English, but also to the implications these have on ELT. It has likewise been put forth that teacher education programs play an essential role in developing this necessary awareness when it comes to ELT. Bearing this in mind, the curricular programs of the five pre-service teacher education programs from the participating universities (of the case study) have been taken into consideration.

When taking a look at the different curricular programs⁹⁰, in no case is there any reference to seminars specifically targeted at ELF or EIL. The majority of the existing programs with an English component are structured in such a way that in the English section, specific emphasis is particularly given to English Didactics and the traineeships in EFL classrooms⁹¹. At various universities though, there are additional (compulsory or elective) seminars within the English component of the Masters, like

⁹⁰ The programs analyzed were those available during the 2011/2012 and 2012/2013 school years.

⁹¹ In this case, only the English element is here taken into consideration. It is worth noting though that in addition to the English component of teaching MA degrees, an equivalent structure is also visible for the other foreign language (be it French, German or Spanish). On top of the linguistic basis of their education, attention is likewise given to general educational matters.

English Language or English C1/C2, English Languages and Cultures, and Production of Didactic Materials in English.

According to the syllabi made available online and the feedback received from the interviews, at some universities reference is made to ELF/EIL related issues, although in some cases to greater extent than others. Yet, in a few circumstances in the interviews, trainees manifested their unfamiliarity with these terms; however, those that did so, expressed a desire and interest to further explore these notions. Despite this fact, in the interviews, participants were likewise asked to give their own definition of ELF/EIL, in which a variety of answers were given, ranging from:

- “It is an international code in most countries. It is like Esperanto.”
- “It involves knowing how to use the language properly in international contexts. It is a language to communicate, to properly work with a language that does not belong to us. It is the language to communicate with everyone all around the world.”
- “It is the language you learn after your native language.”
- “It is a complex concept. It is language used in general, the first language to be used in the global context.”
- “It is not really a variety of English. It is the English used to communicate between NS and NNSs around the world.”

From the answers gathered (in the questionnaires and interviews) it is clear that few fully understand the concept of ELF/EIL, however, it is evident that all grasp the nature of the international use of English and its importance. When comparing these responses with another study also targeted at students enrolled in MA TESOL/ELT and Applied Linguistics programs, but at UK-based institutions of Higher Education (Dewey 2012), Portuguese students seem to be less aware of these notions. In the case of the UK, Dewey states that teachers are not only aware of the concept, but also display a considerable understanding of the terms and interrelated matters; however, this may also have to do with the participants coming from a wide array of teaching backgrounds with different levels of experience.

Returning to the Portuguese case, during the interviews, participants also expressed the importance of these concepts being explored in ELT programs in schools – a reality that most agree is neither (fully) dealt with at a basic or secondary

level. Some went even further and gave examples of how these concepts can be introduced into school systems with, for instance, recordings of a variety of English speakers (NSs and NNSs) from different backgrounds (so as to help students understand, “English is English regardless of where they come from,” as stated by one participant), motivational activities (e.g. exhibitions) or collaborative projects established with other schools (e.g. through European funded programs like e-Twinning).

In addition, interviewees were questioned on the current role of NNESTs in ELT, so as to grasp their perspective on notions they believe are focal as language educators, and whether these go in line with an ELF point of view⁹². Despite the limited number of interviewees, it is important to understand how they feel as prospective NNESTs, in order to examine to what extent they feel comfortable in their role. From the feedback obtained, there is a general consensus regarding the importance of their function as language teachers, placing particular emphasis on how they are qualified language professionals (hence one of the main reasons for them to enroll in the teaching MA programs). Some of the positive arguments put forth in favor of their function as future language educators include, the fact that:

- They have acquired trained knowledge and skills, namely in the area of English Didactics;
- They have achieved a relatively high standard of English language proficiency (at least at a theoretical level), therefore, it does not matter whether learners have a native or non-native teacher;
- Continuing with the previous topic, even though they may not speak what is denominated as “perfect English”, they may compensate for that by being able to communicate with people from other cultures, and that is the main idea to be transmitted to students;
- They are better able to understand students’ needs and doubts, as they too went through a similar process, and are therefore better prepared to explain these issues to their students.

⁹² These issues were touched upon throughout the questionnaire in several questions; however, in the interview participants were asked to directly reflect on these matters and were also given the opportunity to further expand on their thoughts.

Nevertheless, responses also portrayed a certain level of insecurity in some areas, demonstrating that trainees are particularly demanding of themselves, in addition to also being concerned with what others think. Some relevant issues mentioned include:

- The pressure and expectations felt from both students and their parents, especially in the latter case, seeing as parents many times express their preference in favor of NESTs for their children;
- In connection with the previous topic, reference was also made to how NNESTs' accents are influenced by their mother tongue and because of that it might cause some disturbance among students, who are very critical of their teacher's pronunciation.
- As prospective teachers, it is really important trainees know well the culture of the language from personal experience. It is very negative when teachers do not know it nor are they able to answer their students' questions.

Taking into account these reactions, there is a patent insecurity that persists and that goes very much in line with Gnutzmann's "complex of inferiority" (1999); that is, an existing lack of self-esteem and confidence in trainees' own language skills and cultural knowledge.

For this reason, it seems necessary that trainees reflect on today's current language use and language teaching approaches, to be better prepared language educators, who will teach future English users. If they do not exhibit confidence in their own language use and knowledge of language and culture, how should it be expected that they be able to convey these values to their students?

It is with this in mind that an additional outlook is here discussed, which may lead trainees to rethink not only their own role as NNESTs, but also how they may take on a more international perspective in the ELT classroom, ultimately empowering students to become effective language users in any situation (either with NSs or NNSs). In this sense, the main aim is essentially for trainees' to develop a vision that goes from taking on solely a critical perspective, to one that includes developing a transformative perspective that will have an impact in the classroom.

5.3. Teacher training and development: from a critical to a transformative perspective

Innovations in curricula and in pedagogic aims generally provoke a certain level of uncertainty among language educators (Roberts 1998, Jenkins 2007). Change not only contributes to teachers feeling unsettled, but it also leads to controversial feelings and a certain level of uneasiness. According to Bartels (2005), in order for change to be truly observed in teaching practices, it is not enough for teachers (or teacher trainees) to gain knowledge about language and language learning. It involves much more than that, and if the activities they are engaged with are not associated with their own activities as (future) language teachers, it makes it more complicated for them to grasp the concepts involved. This is especially the case when taking into consideration novice teachers, who are less experienced and therefore require educational experiences that are comparable to those they will be confronted with as language educators. Along these lines, Lesgold *et al.* (1988: 302) further reiterate that, “Even if something is learned (...) for transfer to occur, this knowledge must be encoded in such a way that it can be used in the target domain.”

However, perhaps teacher education programs can take a step further and instead of simply adopting a critical perspective, they can move on to assume more of a transformative standpoint that in the end will have a deeper impact on actual language teaching practices, regardless of the situation they are in. Guilherme (2002) goes on to explain that teachers should not be solely considered as “critical educators”, but ought to also take on the role of “transformative intellectuals”, who work for change and reform in society. In her opinion, the role of the teacher is not one of simply conveying knowledge to students, but getting them to actively participate and reflect on language as well. However, this can only be done if educators make use of dialog and make knowledge interesting and significant for language learners; only then can it become liberating. As Guilherme puts forth:

Critical educators are: (a) reflective practitioners; (b) dialogue facilitators; and (c) ‘transformative intellectuals’, in Giroux’s terminology, who ‘treat students as critical agents, question how knowledge is produced and distributed, utilize dialogue, and make knowledge meaningful, critical, and ultimately emancipatory’ (Giroux, 1988: 175).

(Guilherme 2002: 217)

By taking such a stance, teachers engage in a course of action that may include not only a shift in terms of paradigm, but also lead to the reassessment of their beliefs, opinions and knowledge; by doing so, they take part in what may be referred to as a “pedagogy of empowerment” (Guilherme 2002). Such pedagogy includes other factors as well, such as the realization that they, as teachers, have initiated a never-ending process, where in cooperation with their students they seek to explore the several options available. Moreover, as teachers, their role will consist in defying and inspiring learners to analytically interpret their experiences and expand their horizons on a regular basis.

However, the question that may remain is: How is this possible? What is most accountable for triggering pedagogic change? First of all, it is important to establish that in teacher education a distinction needs to be made when considering the notions of “training” and of “development”, both of which play a fundamental role in teacher progress. In the former case, according to Richards and Farrell (2005), training is associated with the essential principles and techniques that future teachers need to acquire in order to later know how to apply them. In other words, its content can be deemed as both normalizing and dogmatic. As they put it:

Training involves understanding basic concepts and principles as a prerequisite for applying them to teaching and the ability to demonstrate principles and practices in the classroom (...) The content of training is usually determined by experts and is often available in standard training formats or through prescriptions in methodology books.

(Richards and Farrell 2005: 3)

Development, in contrast, has a more longstanding effect, in which understanding, examination and reflection are three vital points for (future) teachers to acquire; hence contributing to their perception of teaching and of their role as teachers. As Richards and Farrell (2005: 4) observe, “[development] serves a longer-term goal and seeks to facilitate growth of teachers’ understanding of teaching and of themselves as teachers. It often involves examining different dimensions of a teacher’s practice as a basis for reflective review.”

Similarly, Widdowson (1990) observes that while training is connected with finding answers and solutions to predetermined issues, development entails

reformulating ideas and adapting mindsets to the different situations that may emerge.

As he argues:

[Training] is directed at providing solutions to a set of predictable problems and sets a premium on unreflecting expertise [contrastingly, education] provides for situations which cannot be accommodated into preconceived patterns of response but which require a reformulation of ideas and the modification of established formulae.

(Widdowson 1990: 61)

Bearing in mind the distinction established between these two concepts, if change is to be implemented, it is clear then that it will have to be via “development”, rather than “training”. In this sense then, teacher(s) (trainees) need to go beyond a critical perspective so as to assume a more transformative one (Sifakis 2014a). Although the former may be regarded as an umbrella term that includes the latter – due to the common element of reflection – both however are different. While a critical perspective is more outwardly centered and tries to grasp and transform a certain context; a transformative perspective is alternatively more focused on looking inwards, and tries to understand and modify an individual.

Jack Mezirow (1991, 1995, 1998), an adult education theorist, was one of the first to develop a transformative approach to learning (initially presented in 1978), which has since then been applied in many domains of adult education (e.g. adult ESOL literacy, cultural awareness, ESOL teacher education, peacemaking, social justice, among other areas). His theory takes into consideration Freire’s⁹³ “social transformation” model (1970) as well as Boyd’s⁹⁴ “transformative education”

⁹³ Paulo Freire (1921-1997), critical educator, promoted self-education and encouraged students to critically reflect on their educational situation. When that type of approach is applied, learners are able to identify the correlation that exists between their own experiences and issues and the social contexts where they are set in. The first step, however, is to acquire critical awareness of the social reality (“conscientization”), which will afterwards lead to action and reflection (“praxis”). Praxis essentially consists in participating in a cycle that goes through several stages, from theory to application, to evaluation, reflection and back to theory again. This, however, can only be done if people act together in their environment; therefore, a social transformation can only take place at a collective level.

⁹⁴ Robert Boyd developed a theory of transformative education based on analytical (or depth) psychology. He is likewise focused on facilitating personal transformation and emphasizes the importance of consciousness in adult learning. From his perspective, adults make the unconscious conscious, so as to become aware of issues about themselves of which they have not been conscious. Moreover, he believes that self-knowledge is mainly mediated through symbols instead of directly by language. Symbols are believed to be powerful images that have much meaning for us, seeing as at an unconscious level, they symbolize deep-rooted matters that can be evoked from the reflection on content or subject matter. Basically, the aim of transformative learning is to identify, name and

perspective (1991), by expanding and developing on both of these models.

According to Mezirow, the main aim of such an approach is to get participants to challenge and modify their opinions on a specific matter by encouraging them to critically examine their beliefs, search for different roles and terrains considering the new material gathered and lastly, accept change in view of the situation determined by the new outlook. Sifakis (2009) breaks down Mezirow's outlook into six phases, in which participants challenge and modify their own points of view. As he puts forth:

It essentially aims at bringing participants to confront and change their established viewpoints about a particular issue by providing hands-on information and asking them to (a) realize and critically examine their assumptions, (b) openly explore new terrains by trying new roles, (c) plan a course of action, (d) acquire knowledge and skills for implementing that plan, (d) build self-confidence in the new roles and (e) become reintegrated on the basis of conditions dictated by the new perspective.

(Sifakis 2009: 346)

Seeing as throughout time humans establish expectations and habits that are shaped by their own experiences, what Mezirow does with this approach is break them down. According to him, there are two kinds of expectations and habits, "meaning schemes" and "meaning perspectives" (which may also be referred to as "frames of reference"). The former is related to factors that people are aware of and that influence their assessment and response to different events. The latter, in contrast, is concerned with a higher-order, and is associated with "sets of habitual expectation" that are established by beliefs and learning styles, and comprise codes that control actions like observing, understanding and remembering (Mezirow 1991, Sifakis 2009). What they essentially provide are the principles to assess and evaluate the difference between issues like, good and bad, right and wrong, or true and false.

For transformative learning to actually take place though, it is the meaning perspectives need to be examined and analyzed – a process that is not only demanding, but also time-consuming and far from easy-going (Holliday 2005). Sifakis (2009) believes the reason for this lies on the fact that although people's meaning schemes can change (e.g. close beliefs and hopes), their frames of reference (e.g. overall worldview) remain unaffected. In order for new schemes and

elaborate on the images that emerge throughout the learning process and to establish with them an interpersonal dialog.

perspectives to be developed, participants must engage in critical reflection in relation to their values, principles and expectations. Participants need to therefore develop “greater autonomy in thinking” (Mezirow 2000: 29), and this can only be done if they critically reflect on the specific experience and critique their customary ways of labeling a problem. Simply making them aware of a certain issue or encouraging them to experience it is not enough for change to be implemented.

With this in mind, Mezirow (1991: 107-108) identifies three kinds of reflection on experience:

- *Content reflection* is centered on the experience itself, it incorporates an individual’s own actions, feelings and thoughts that bring to life the experience;
- *Process reflection* deals with the way an experience is worked out in people’s minds, in addition to observing their actions, feelings and thoughts, as well as calculating their effectiveness;
- *Premise reflection* consists in reexamining the basis of a person’s actions, feelings and thoughts by referring, when needed, to longtime socially formed beliefs and values on a specific experience or issue.

From Mezirow’s point of view, the merging of these three types of reflection, which culminate with the premise reflection, promotes a complete transformative learning experience in adult participants. If, for instance, the context of adult education programs is to be taken into consideration, participants are encouraged to bring forth assumptions regarding a particular experience or problem, so as to then critically consider and assess those particular assumptions. The first step that needs to be taken though is to trigger in participants an initial problem or dilemma that makes them conscious of their feelings and thoughts regarding a specific issue. Afterwards, participants undergo a process of self-examination, which is usually associated with “feelings of fear, anger, guilt or shame” (Mezirow 2000: 22). This is followed by a critical analysis of their reactions, in which learners share their views, search for options to assume new roles, relationships and actions, and devise a plan with a course of action to help them increase their competency and self-confidence in their new roles and relationships (Sifakis 2009). The last step requires incorporating the new perspective into the learners’ lives and routines, for them to carry it out, instead

of just critically reflecting on the new concepts. In the end, for transformative learning to be deemed successful, it is necessary participants develop not only autonomy and self-learning, but also empowerment, the key factor for change to have an effect.

5.4. Adopting a transformative framework for ELF

As the aim is to demonstrate to trainees that there is an alternative/additional way to look at English and to get them to realize how it can be applied to their own context, simply employing a critical approach will not suffice, as it has been argued thus far. For change to actually take place in favor of ELF awareness and the implementation of ELF-associated activities/curriculum, taking on a transformative perspective in teacher education programs is the key element.

Sifakis (2007, 2009, 2014a), one of the main advocates in favor of ELF and of a transformative learning perspective in teacher education programs, explores the enormous opportunities and challenges of such model. Even though he believes this framework is targeted at those who are already teachers, seeing as experience is part of the process, I believe it can also be applied with pre-service teacher trainees as well, based on two main reasons.

Firstly, a considerable number of the trainees who usually enroll in the teaching MA programs in Portugal have some type of previous/current involvement in language teaching. Taking into consideration the specific group in the study, 67% have had some experience in ELT, either at lower levels, private schools or tutoring.

Secondly, as for trainees with no prior experience, it is customary for all those enrolled in the teaching programs to have contact with the ELT classroom from the first semester onwards. At first their contact is limited to in-classroom observation, but afterwards they begin to participate by assisting their cooperating teachers with certain activities, then afterwards planning and teaching a whole lesson, and finally being in charge of devising a whole unit. In this sense, in both cases, trainees have in-classroom experience, and the opportunity to reflect on certain practices/attitudes so as to afterwards incorporate their new perspectives into their teaching practice.

In order for a transformative framework to be successful, Sifakis (2009) stresses yet another central issue, which is the need for participants to be willing to learn more about ELF and be open to change. The implementation of such an

approach does not necessarily imply that (prospective) teachers need to change straight away their entire point of view in what concerns English and their role within the teaching context. Instead, what is fomented is the opportunity to develop awareness in relation to the complex matters ELF research provokes and the consequences it has on communication and pedagogy. Bearing this in mind, participants are encouraged to critically analyze and reflect, and together with their colleagues come to be skillful participants, who are open to dialog, to communicate, to listen and to develop networking skills. Considering these issues, once more, pre-service teacher trainees seem to be the ideal group for this kind of framework to be put into action.

First of all, as verified in the questionnaires and interviews, those enrolled in these programs are usually interested and drawn by the opportunity to develop not only practical teaching skills, but also to learn and reflect on innovative and theoretical approaches to language learning; consequently, acquiring and developing a more academic standpoint, which may afterwards be implemented in the classroom.

Secondly, given that the transformative process is very much associated with group work (rather than a solitary endeavor), trainees involved in the teaching MA programs usually represent a cohesive group that is working towards a similar end. Although autonomous training is possible, Sifakis (2014a) mentions that it is a complex and demanding process that participants go through, from which uncertain results may arise. Some of the issues that emerge include the fact that the literature available for the participants to engage with is quite extensive. For that reason, depending on each context, assistance is necessary in terms of identifying which articles or books are more relevant. In some cases, particular importance may be given to written communication, while in others it may be to spoken communication, or even to NS and NNS's assumptions on what is considered proper and effective communication. Furthermore, diverging insights may also be depicted in the research literature available⁹⁵, which obviously contributes to developing critical awareness

⁹⁵ One example may be the Randolph Quirk (1985, 1990) and Braj Kachru (1985, 1991) debate, in which Quirk views non-native Englishes through a “deficit” standpoint (therefore not valid as teaching models), while Kachru sees them through a “difference” perspective (in which he challenges the traditional notions of standardization and models as solely associated with Inner-circle users). More recently, in research centered on ELF pragmatics, which usually describes NNSs in collaborative interactions (e.g. Cogo and Dewey 2006), there have been studies mentioning communication between NNSs can also be problematic. In Jenks (2012), for instance, it is stated how in ELF interactions interlocutors are not always necessarily encouraging and understanding when it comes to building

regarding the intricacies and unpredictability of ELF interactions. These issues afterwards lead to another crucial issue, which is the lack of well-defined perceptions in what concerns the learning and teaching curriculum, and the demand for educators to elaborate, apply and assess their own ELF-aware curriculum as they go.

With this in mind, the most reasonable approach is to go from a general to a more specific dimension, beginning with easier and broader-themed published works, so as to later move on to more difficult and specified texts. By doing so, participants are able to concentrate on particular issues of their own interest. Reflective questions are also essential in guiding trainees' interests towards particular aspects of the literature; this type of an approach not only helps them to clarify their awareness on several matters, but it also allows them to compare those questions with their own (pre-)conceptions, by encouraging and showing them how to incorporate ELF-related issues, and also how to plan, teach and assess ELF-aware activities.

One recent example of this is Hall and Wicaksono (2013), who present an online teacher education program called *Changing Englishes*, which in its trial version included trainees and practicing teachers from the Inner, Outer and Expanding circles (Hall *et al.* 2013). The aim of this program does not greatly diverge from the features previously mentioned. According to Hall and Wicaksono, the objective of the course is to essentially get participants to actively engage with the ideas of the plurality of English, the diversity of learning approaches and outcomes, as well as to encourage the sharing of diverse pedagogical approaches. As they put it, the aim is to:

raise awareness of the 'plurilithic' nature of English, enable teachers to value the diversity of individually and locally appropriate learning objectives and outcomes, and promote the development and sharing of pedagogical strategies which respond to the global realities of the language.

(Hall *et al.* 2013: 2)

In view of the outcome of the trial version and the feedback received, Hall *et al.* (2013) argue in favor of the importance of the program in stimulating "transformative experiences" that will likely influence and have an impact on the concepts of language and language teaching in the future of ELT educators. As they mention:

consensus; quite the opposite, they may actually laugh, joke or mock each other, thus stressing the issues or troubles that may arise in communication.

There is clear evidence that users of the trial version of the course have constructively engaged with the material and that it has generated transformative experiences which have the potential to provoke enduring ontological shifts in their conceptions of the language they teach and, consequently, to influence their own approach to professional practice and professional development.

(Hall *et al.* 2013: 15)

There is one issue though that this course seems to lack, and that is the interactive and group dynamics that Sifakis (2014a) describes as essential in the transformative process. Given that it is an online course in which participants progress through it at different stages, not everyone goes through the same process at the same time. Despite the existence of an interactive discussion board at the end, the last entries date from the Summer of 2013, in which one of the participants mentions the lack of cooperation with the other followers:

I'm now through with the course and I am able to state that its structure and the way the material is presented and organized are logical and comprehensive. What I lacked was insufficient collaboration with other followers, as I need other people's opinion and comments on the issues covered in the course.

(Hrox August 6, 2013:

<http://changingenglishees.boards.net/thread/5/feedback#ixzz3K6PV6lxv>)

In this sense, the importance of teamwork among fellow colleagues is reiterated in the comment of this particular participant. When taking on a transformative framework, the guidance of a trainer, group work and the opportunity to exchange experiences and points of views are all central.

The role of the trainer should not be viewed though as someone who imposes particular values, but instead, as someone who assumes the position of an advisor, confidante, mentor or prompter (Hudson 2013). According to Sifakis (2014a), as mentors, trainers should first of all guide participants and involve them at a personal level with the literature pertaining to ELF. This may be elicited by asking participants to examine particular issues as they progress, such as, critically reflecting on their own previous experience as language learners. Furthermore, trainers should take into account as well the available literature, so as to assist trainees in exploring the relevant issues for their specific teaching contexts (e.g. textbooks, curriculum,

learners) as well as the wider context (e.g. stakeholders' viewpoints). Lastly, trainers should likewise encourage trainees to negotiate, organize, design and assess different activities and full lesson plans of their own classes. This may be done through video recordings of their own classes, followed afterwards by observation and critical reflection.

Throughout this process trainers assume then the role of mentors, who promote self-reflection among participants, hence stimulating their own self-development as ELF-aware trainees. Not only do they become actively conscious of the complex issues that the research raises, but also of the consequences it brings in the areas of communication and pedagogy.

Although not yet mentioned, it is essential not to overlook the role of the cooperating teachers, who work directly with the trainees at basic and secondary schools. These professionals play a fundamental part in helping trainees incorporate the knowledge they bring from university and applying it in the ELT classroom. In view of this, they too should be familiar with the concept of ELF and of an ELF-aware pedagogical approach. If possible, it would be particularly interesting to have cooperating teachers participate in the ELF-based seminars/modules taught at universities. Not only would they be able to bring input from their own teaching experience, but they could also function as the link between the theoretical approaches put forth and the actual issues that may arise in school settings (e.g. pedagogical matters or reactions from the school board, parents and/or students).

Together, these three groups combined – the university trainers, the cooperating teachers and the trainees – incorporate the necessary skills, know-how, experience and (hopefully) desire to actively consider and reflect on today's current lingua franca use and its implications in the ELT classroom.

5.4.1. ELF-aware five stage framework

Sifakis promotes a transformative framework (2007, 2009, 2014a) that consists of five essential stages that participants should go through – the preparation stage, identification stage, awareness stage, transformation stage and planning stage. As previously mentioned, the intention of this process is not to change (future) teachers' attitudes radically, nor straightaway, regarding English or their role as language professionals. Instead, the aim is centered on becoming actively aware of the complex

issues of ELF and getting participants to analyze, reflect on, dialog with, listen to and network with each of their partners.

Let us then reflect on each of the phases individually. For this task, Sifakis' guidelines will be taken into consideration and further expanded on when deemed necessary, especially taking into account trainees' responses from the questionnaire and interviews.

1) *Preparation stage*

In this first stage, the essential issue lies on trainers becoming familiar with the participants involved in the sessions (even before the start of the actual sessions) so as to ascertain how participants can be divided into coherent groups. For that reason, it is important to understand the participants' professional background, studies and interests – namely what is the English they use like, which skills are generally entailed in the English they use, who do they use it with (e.g. NSs or NNSs) and with what intention (e.g. personal or professional).

Moreover, trainees can and should also be inquired on the topics that will be developed throughout the course/module; hence, engaging in content reflection on basic notions, such as ownership, error or (inter)cultural awareness, to name just a few. With the different answers obtained, trainers can afterwards use this feedback as “raw material” (Sifakis 2009) in future training sessions when debating and exploring more in depth these issues.

2) *Identification stage*

This second stage is a bit more complicated and time-consuming. Participants begin by becoming acquainted with each other and only afterwards do they delve into actual content reflection. In this phase, trainees acquire awareness of what concerns ELF communication, so that afterwards they can develop their own understanding and reactions to it (Sifakis 2007, 2009). At this stage what is basically fomented is the discovery of ELF, by exposing participants to the most important issues, so as to prepare them to subsequently consider other more extensive and secondary topics that also comprise ELF communication. As this is still a very initial phase, it is important that trainers never lose sight of important matters, like the trainees' backgrounds or the local ELT teacher conventions, among other issues.

It is also essential to expose participants to authentic spoken ELF discourse,

which should be as more diverse and widespread as possible (e.g. NNSs and NSs, standard and non-standard dialects, formal and informal). By doing so, trainees become familiar with examples of communication between NNSs as well as between NNS-NS interlocutors, grasping this way not only the international nature of the use of English, but also the differences that may emerge in communication.

With this in mind, trainers can resort to the various ELF corpora available online for free (or upon registration or authorized consent for research), like the ELFA or VOICE corpuses developed in Europe (but with speakers from around the world) or the ACE corpus more centered on Asian speakers of English. In all three cases, discourse recordings are only available in audio format; however, if possible, Sifakis (2007, 2009) argues that it is important that participants also have access to audiovisual recordings. The reason for this lies on the fact that being able to observe the different speakers involved can be considerably helpful, as body language plays a vital role in communication (e.g. gestures and facial expressions). If no material is available, however, trainers can always create their own materials, in which the trainees themselves can function as contributors of ELF data.

After having the necessary material, trainees should be divided into different groups, which will listen to/watch the different recordings, so as to later transcribe them. The act of transcribing though is not simply restricted to writing down what is said, it also implies participants recording their own opinions and reactions to what they hear/watch. By doing so, they have the time to deliberate over what may be deemed as ELF discourse and reflect on it. After having gone through this process, it is suggested that all the transcriptions, as well as each one's notes, be collected and discussed within and among the several groups. These discussions should not be limited only to the linguistic features (e.g. grammar, lexis) of discourse, but should also take into account specific communication factors, like the interlocutors involved, the topic, the setting as well as sociocultural issues.

Initially, the main focus of trainees is usually more centered on the linguistic characteristics of the passage, and this of course is without a doubt a vital stage in their analysis; however, once all of those features have been examined, trainees should be guided to undertake a deeper level analysis, in which the pragmatics of the discourse is considered. A full comprehensive description of the communicative situation should be given; in other words, trainees should take into consideration the topic developed, the communication strategies used, how meaning is negotiated, how

misunderstandings are dealt with, and so on. Essentially, what is promoted is a type of discourse analysis of the transcriptions, through which participants learn how to recognize and understand how ELF works in a variety of circumstances.

Nevertheless, throughout this process several issues may emerge, of which can be included, participants' apprehension and reactions to the notions of comprehensibility or norm-boundness regarding this type of communication (Sifakis 2004). In these cases, for instance, the transcription exercise they begin with plays a fundamental role, as it allows them to deliberate over what they consider are the least and best achieved aspects, to what extent they believe such communication differs from what is considered the norm as well as to understand their position in what concerns the regularity of this discourse at a worldwide level.

Associated with these issues, several relevant questions may be raised during the group discussions, hence contributing to the trainee's reflective process. Based on Sifakis (2007: 367-368), some of the questions to reflect on can include:

- When listening to the discourse for the first time, what impact did such communication have on you? What "pleased" or "displeased" you the most in it? (The trainees' notion of norm-boundness is expected to surface here, but so are issues related to comprehensibility.);
- What type of difficulties emerged when you were transcribing the discourse? (In place of technical issues, trainees should focus here on language-related aspects, like grammar, lexis and pronunciation.);
- What were the strengths and weaknesses that you were able to identify in the interaction? (Trainees may consider for instance, the competency levels of the language, how meaning is negotiated, the accommodation strategies used by the several speakers, how cultural barriers are dealt with, among other issues);
- From your point of view, was communication effective? What aspects were there in the interlocutors' discourse that made it successful/unsuccessful? (At this point, attention is turned to more communication-centered topics, rather than on language-centered issues);
- In your opinion, to what extent does the communicative interaction diverge from what is considered the standard norm? To what point do you believe these deviations are vital? (Trainees here can reflect on notions of grammar correctness versus intelligibility and effective communication);

- What would you do to enhance the communicative interaction in question? (Here trainees can explore different communicative strategies, for instance);
- How would you compare your own discourse with the interlocutors in the interaction, better or worse? Are there any similarities that you may identify with? (Here trainees can draw on the notions already developed in the previous questions to reflect on their own language production);
- In your opinion, to what extent is this type of discourse commonly used around the world today? (The pervasiveness of lingua franca use is here put into question).

It is important that throughout this course of action trainees register not only their own reactions and thoughts (regarding a preference for certain accents, for instance), but also their judgments (about what they may consider errors in terms of grammar or vocabulary among NSs and NNSs, for example) regarding the features found in each of their passages.

This reflective action is a fundamental step in the transformative process, as trainees become involved not only in content reflection, but also in developing an awareness of their own meaning schemes; thus, ultimately appealing to their thoughts, feelings and actions. In other words, they are awakened to, as Sifakis (2009: 350) states, “their implicit views regarding the primary issues involved in ELF teaching”.

3) *Awareness stage*

For the third stage of the transformative framework, a variety of articles, chapters and/or books on ELF-related issues are chosen to reflect upon. The selected materials contemplate not only the main aspects involved in ELF, but also go on to consider the case of ELF for other secondary issues (Sifakis 2007, 2009). With the initial readings provided, trainees gain a more widespread understanding of several topics associated with ELF, namely those that are more directly and straightforwardly visible, and that are concerned with linguistic and communication issues. These texts may be thought of as steppingstones for trainees to become gradually familiarized with other more serious matters that require a more in depth analysis and localized reflection.

According to each specific scenario, a selection of different readings ought to be given to participants. These can range from more introductory texts developing on the concept, to more complex writings reflecting on policy issues, which may

specifically focus on the European context (given the geographical location in question). Some topics and works that may be referred to include⁹⁶:

- The history of English as a global language (e.g. Crystal 2003, Graddol 1997, Jenkins 2003, Northrup 2013);
- The variety of designations describing the current use of English (e.g. World Standard [Spoken] English – McArthur 1987; General English – Ahlu 1997; World English – Brutt-Griffler 2002; World Englishes – Crystal 2003; English as an International Language – Jenkins 2000 and 2002, Widdowson 1997, Modiano 1999a; English as a Lingua Franca – Gnutzmann 2000, Jenkins, Cogo and Dewey 2011; Seidlhofer 2001);
- The diverging insights into ELF (e.g. Quirk vs. Kachru debate – Quirk 1985 and 1990, Kachru 1985 and 1991);
- Jenkins’ lingua franca core (e.g. Jenkins 1998, 2000, 2002, 2003 and 2005);
- Reflections on (intercultural) communicative competence and intercultural communication (e.g. Alptekin 2002 and 2010, Byram 1997, Copérias Aguilar 2007, Friedrich 2012, Kaur 2011, Leung 2005, Soler and Jordà 2007);
- ELF communication strategies (e.g. Jenkins 2000, Kirkpatrick 2010a, Mauranen 2006, Seidlhofer 2003);
- Culture and (inter)cultural awareness (e.g. Baker 2011 and 2015, Holliday *et al.* 2004, Knapp and Meierkord 2002);
- Surpassing the NS paradigm with materials produced from other places, for instance from post-colonial studies or the Expanding circle (e.g. Brutt-Griffler and Samimi 2001, Matsuda 2011), and the “native speaker fallacy” (e.g. Phillipson 1992);
- Critical discussions on language policy issues, with particular reference to the European scenario – such as the EU and Council of Europe’s language policies in favor of societal multilingualism and individual plurilingualism in view of the international role of English (e.g. Canagarajah 2005, Lo Bianco 2014, Phillipson 2003, Seidlhofer 2003 and 2004, Wright 2004).

⁹⁶ The topics and readings given are based on Sifakis (2007, 2009), but have been further expanded with some of my own suggestions. It is worth noting that there are many approaches that may be taken and these are simply some proposals to consider. These may (and should) be adapted according to each specific context/group. Given the extensive literature available, the readings suggested are likewise only a small part of what may be provided to participants.

At this stage, group dialog should be further encouraged and expanded on, starting with issues trainees are most accustomed with and progressing from there on. Another alternative is to assign important readings to each group, have them prepare the readings together and afterwards present their conclusions in front of the class, so that conjointly, they may discuss their opinions and attitudes on the matters involved.

It is obviously impossible to reflect on all the topics that encompass the ELF debate; however, it is possible for trainees to become engaged with not only the primary issues of ELF, but also with the intricacies and inter-relatedness of the secondary themes that interest them. Sifakis (2007, 2009) contends that it is only by having participants critically consider and reflect on topics of their own interest that they will be able to, “make sense of them and perhaps reach some tangible realizations (2007: 369, 2009: 351). For this to be achieved though, the reading materials provided should also be similarly associated with the issues discussed in the previous stage, where trainees deliberated over their own views on ELF discourse.

Ultimately, the purpose of these activities is for participants to recognize and grasp the magnitude of the issues surrounding ELF. In fact, this reflective process can be a bit daunting, as trainees are confronted with “disorienting dilemmas” (as referred to by Mezirow [1991]), which are related with how their own views have influenced their role as (future) language educators (e.g. they may come to realize they have given too much importance to NSs in correct language use).

In the end, the objective is not for trainees to assume an immediate position on the debate in question; instead, relevance is given to them contemplating the most important issues on ELF, by associating them with their own way of observing English. Once more, the trainer here is simply deemed as a “facilitator”, someone who guides participants throughout the process and who should not manipulate or impose on their opinions.

4) *Transformation stage*

In this fourth stage, also known as the transformation stage, more attention is given to the teaching process and to the participants’ identity formation as (future) language educators. Up to this point, the ELF debate has been approached from a more general point of view; however, in this phase, attention begins to revolve around each of the trainees’ teaching circumstances, and the choices that have shaped their own

professional character as (future) ELT teachers.

With the transformative process midway through, participants have the skills to consider and assess the aspects that have shaped their professional identity (however limited their experience may be). Some of the central issues to contemplate may be related with their professional motivations, the advantages and disadvantages of being a teacher, prospective ambitions, the teaching scenarios they have been confronted with, the teaching methods/approaches used, among other topics.

Drawing from Sifakis (2007), there are a number of questions associated with these issues, which participants may ask themselves. Some examples that may be contemplated are:

- What was it that made me choose this profession?
- What do I consider are its rewards and difficulties?
- How autonomous or dependent have I been/am I in what I do?
- To what extent am I pleased with my own progress?
- What is my goal for the future as a language teacher?
- What kinds of learners have I taught/am I teaching/will I (supposedly) teach?
- What stimulated them the most or the least? Or what do I believe will stimulate them the most or the least??
- How successful were/are the learners at communicating?
- When linguistic/cultural barriers arise, how did/do/can they overcome them?
- Which teaching methods have I been employing/do I employ/will I most likely employ?
- What has been/is/will be my position in terms of correction and assessment?
- What do I consider are the least and the most imperative issues to focus on in language production?

While in Sifakis (2007) the questions posed are limited to past and current teaching experiences, I believe that in some cases they may likewise take into account forthcoming situations. Through their MA programs, trainees are prepared to teach upper-basic and secondary level learners, therefore, they should reflect on issues they are confronted with during their traineeship as well as with other potential aspects that may arise afterwards. It would be interesting to establish a comparison between how their responses change when evaluating their previous experience (in the case of those

who have it) with their current one and how they believe they will react in the future.

At this point, it might be of interest to include the cooperating teachers in the discussion regarding some of the aforementioned questions, so that they may comment on their own teaching experience and role as a teacher, and how it has changed. By doing so, trainees may better understand the issues involved in teaching and learn from professionals with more years of practice.

By coming together and reflecting on these matters, the aim is basically for participants “to become fully aware of their own meaning perspectives about English and ESOL pedagogy and engage in process and premise reflection” (Sifakis 2007: 369, 2009: 351). This may be done through a variety of exercises, such as having trainees assess their own classes through audio or video recordings, although preferably the latter, as image plays a key role in evaluating not only one’s own performance, but also the learners’ reactions to what is being done and said in the classroom. Furthermore, participants may assess the teaching processes employed, the specific curricular situation they are in, the course books used, how learner evaluation and testing is conducted as well as the learners’ specific needs. As Sifakis contends, the basic aim is to get participants to grasp, “why they teach what they teach and why they teach it the way they do” (2007: 369, 2007: 351).

In addition, Sifakis (2007) also refers to the importance of contemplating the role of teachers and their expected professional conduct both within and outside the classroom. The reason for this is because taking on an ELF-aware pedagogy may raise several ethical issues in each of the participants’ individual teaching contexts. With this in mind, they should assess how and/or what their employers, learners and learners’ parents expect they will teach and evaluate, as well as consider to what extent they believe their role as “guardians of Standard English” is important for themselves, their learners and the community at large.

Building on the material collected throughout the several stages, in the end, the decision that needs to be made by participants is whether it is worth adopting a new alternative/additional perspective about English and ELT for the specific case under consideration. What may be deemed as inappropriate in one situation may however not be the case in another; therefore, this type of critical reflective exercise is essential whenever taking on new learning environments.

5) *Planning stage*

After completing all the previous steps, this final stage of the transformative framework is mainly centered on formulating, executing and assessing an ELF action plan. In order for this to be achieved though, participants need to understand the major issues surrounding ELF and an ELF-related pedagogy, as well as the effect it will have on each of their teaching situations.

When planning, it is assumed that trainees will incorporate aspects from recent ELT research; however, the basis for action is now also founded on their own ELF standpoint. It can be argued then that they are (re)integrated into their role as language teachers, who are able to apply an ELF approach when and where it is required. Even though it may not be plausible to integrate an ELF point of view at all levels, trainees are equipped with the basic skills to recognize when and where it can be incorporated.

One area in which it can be more easily implemented may be with supplementary listening and reading materials. For example, teachers may bring into the classroom audio files, videos or films containing examples of English speakers from a variety of different backgrounds, both NSs and NNSs. In terms of reading resources, teachers may integrate into their lesson plans texts, articles or short stories written by authors who have another mother tongue and culture, and that may even transpose those features into their writings.

As ELF-aware language teachers, another aspect that may be additionally considered is oral production and its assessment. Rather than focusing on native speaker similarity and imitating the accent of the foreign “other”, attention may be turned to intelligibility, and developing the necessary skills to negotiate meaning and successfully overcome obstacles when these arise in spoken interactions.

Once more, it is crucial that participants are completely aware of what ELF is and what it entails, as the roles they have gone through may be inversed. There may come a time in which they need to apply some of the transformative strategies that they have experienced as learners themselves, in order to explain and justify the choices they have made.

All in all, it can be argued that with the transformative framework proposed by Sifakis (2007, 2009), participants not only develop into informed teachers about the features and challenges related to ELF discourse and teaching, but they also become more open to revising their outlooks and opinions on ELT. As already argued though, this

type of an approach cannot be merely restricted to the description of ELF theories and analyses, as it runs the risk of oversimplifying matters and of even emphasizing current stereotypes. For this reason, it is important participants be informed about the primary and secondary issues involved in the ELF debate, so that they can effectively contemplate them by establishing a connection with their own experience, opinions and teaching situation. This can and should be achieved by analyzing real-life ELF discourse, studying the different ELF-related literature available, considering one's own beliefs and responses towards ELF, confronting the biased views in one's teaching environment and finally, conveying one's role as an ELF-aware teacher.

After theoretically deliberating over these matters, one question that may persist is: How will trainees effectively react to this type of framework? One practical example is of Pitzl (2012), who implemented this kind of an approach in a seminar course in teacher education programs at the Technische Universität Dortmund. Like Sifakis' five-stage transformative framework, Pitzl also identifies five similar key aims to focus on during the course. These include the following objectives:

- 1) Familiarizing students with core concepts (e.g. ENL, ESL, EFL, World Englishes, ELF, language variation, variety, speech community);
- 2) Introducing some descriptive ELF findings and linking them to ELT local contexts;
- 3) Raising awareness of what an 'ELF perspective' might mean for ELT – shifting perspectives;
- 4) Giving students the opportunity to try out different cooperative teaching methods (as participants, but also as student teachers in the course);
- 5) Triggering reflective processes (on predominant native speaker models in ELT, own experiences, own ideals, goals and standards discrepancies, practical challenges, ...).

(Pitzl 2012)

Throughout their course, participants are required to actively participate with weekly reading assignments, in-class activities and discussions, the organization of a session of their own, in which there is a mandatory interactive element (cooperative method), as well as three written assignments (one written paper reflecting on their own session

and two papers reviewing sessions held by other classmates).

When considering the specific group analyzed, Pitzl stresses how participants resorted to a variety of interactive/cooperative teaching methods to discuss and reflect on ELF-related issues. Instead of limiting sessions to group discussions or PowerPoint presentations, these collective exercises contributed not only to the dynamics of the group, but also to developing practical skills, which may later be applied in the classroom. Some examples of the activities carried out along with their aims include:

- Dialog writing – negotiation of meaning, correctness/effectiveness/situationality/ multilingualism;
- Games – paraphrasing, guessing the meaning and context of ELF idiom, accents;
- Interviews – teacher identity;
- Jigsaw activity – form-function, lexicogrammar;
- Role playing and acting – who owns English, form-function debate, what is competence;
- Visual exhibitions – effect of ELF in the classroom, homework, testing situations.

In the final session of the course, it is usually requested from participants to mention two things that they have learned, two teaching methods they have experienced, two specific aspects on how an ELF perspective might/is likely to/will affect their own teaching in the future and one additional issue/comment/question/thought/etc. that they will most likely remember. In what concerns the impact of ELF on their future teaching careers, for instance, many participants referred to the importance given to mutual intelligibility over notions of correctness or perfect pronunciation; a greater tolerance toward different accents, a shifted emphasis in pronunciation teaching with input on different accents and varieties; teaching negotiation and communication strategies to avoid communication breakdowns; and to raising awareness to cultural diversity by focusing on different cultures other than England.

With this practical example of the implementation of a transformative framework at a German university, the potential impact it can have on trainees in other courses and in other countries becomes even more evident. The positive feedback from participants sheds light on the increased awareness of linguistic

variation, the existence of different English varieties and their importance for ELT, as well as the different characteristics of ELF communication. Moreover, critical reflection is likewise fomented regarding the current practices and established goals/models for ELT, the participant's own role as (future) language teacher, and the implications and potential integration of an ELF perspective in local ELT contexts.

Taking into consideration the Portuguese scenario, this type of framework can likewise be implemented in a similar manner. Even though teacher education programs have already been established and legislated with a set of compulsory seminars and/or restricted set of options (therefore the difficulty in applying into the programs a new seminar entirely dedicated to ELF), a transformative approach can still be integrated into one of the already functioning seminars, namely in English Didactics (a common seminar across the different MA programs analyzed), for instance, or in other seminars dedicated to English language issues.

Seeing as the teaching programs in Portugal are organized into four semesters, in which the last one is usually devoted to trainees writing their final reports, the best moment for such a framework to be implemented is during the second or third semester of their studies. At this point they have already attended seminars on English or ELT at the university, they have gone through their in-classroom observations, they are familiar with the dynamics developed between teacher and students as well as the curriculum that is used. In addition, at this stage they usually need to prepare the classes they will teach, so it is the ideal period to reflect on these issues; as previously stated by Sifakis – to review “why they teach what they teach and why they teach it the way they do” (2007: 369, 2007:351). With the discussions developed at university and the practical experience gained at upper-basic or secondary schools, trainees can actively reflect on the topic and decide whether ELF can be established in their specific teaching situation and to what extent.

All in all, it is only by actively and critically engaging with these issues that an ELF outlook can emerge as a new and additional paradigm in ELT, slowly gaining an effective presence in English language classrooms alongside the already established EFL standard. Depending on the specific educational context, both can come to co-exist, each one having its own place and time in the ELT domain.

5.5. Summary and final remarks

This chapter began by observing to what extent Portuguese teacher education programs foment an ELF perspective in their trainees as well as how these trainees feel about this issue and their role as future NNESTs. From the feedback received, this particular group of trainees seems to have some vague notions of what the concepts of EIL or ELF encompass, plus in the interviews there was also a manifest interest in further exploring the issue, so as to better understand what it involves. The group also demonstrated that there is a greater need to explore the international dimension of English in Portuguese ELT classrooms, although only a few were able to give specific examples of how this can be achieved.

In addition, trainees also manifested a positive attitude in what concerns their role as qualified NNESTs with the necessary skills to teach the language; nevertheless, there were several instances in which they believe they do not measure up to NESTs, such as being an appropriate model when it comes to accent or having the sufficient cultural knowledge of English-speaking countries (e.g. the UK and US in particular). This lack of confidence or “inferiority complex”, as was already referred to earlier, is not restricted to only this particular group, but is a reality with which many ELT teachers from the Expanding circle have to deal with on a daily basis (e.g. Jenkins 2005, Llurda 2009, Rajagopalan 2004).

It is with these issues in mind that this chapter attempted to demonstrate how teacher education programs play a key part in teacher development, educating trainees to become not only “critical educators”, but taking a step further so they can mature into “transformative intellectuals” (Guilherme 2002), who learn to view English and the learning process differently. In addition to that, by fomenting awareness to the existing diversity in terms of language use, trainees may also develop the necessary confidence to confront the several issues they previously felt uncomfortable with and liberate themselves from the grip of the standard native speaker model.

In order for this to be achieved though, particular emphasis is given to the “development” of trainees rather than to just their “training”; while the former encourages understanding, examination and reflection, which has a far greater impact on trainees’ perceptions of teaching and of their role as teachers, the latter is restricted to developing basic teaching principles and techniques that look for answers and solutions to predetermined problems (generally impossible to predict).

Taking these issues into account and in view of the concerns manifested by trainees in terms of confidence in areas like English use, cultural knowledge and types of materials used, a transformative outlook (Mezirow 1991) was put forth as a way to challenge adult learners' traditional "meaning perspectives" in ELT. As it was discussed, this may be achieved by promoting a type of "premise reflection", which ultimately leads to the autonomy, self-learning and empowerment of each individual.

Based then on Mezirow's transformative learning approach, Sifakis' proposal for a five stage ELF-aware transformative framework (2007, 2009) was here presented as a possible solution to take on both a realistic and practical model that reflects on the current use of English (as a lingua franca or international language), and its implications on teachers' behaviors and how classes are taught. In this sense, it is argued how important the first step consist in getting to know the participants and their different backgrounds, to understand their prior teaching experience and organize them accordingly into working groups. Afterwards it is proposed that trainees concentrate on identifying the main topics involved in ELF discourse, so as to subsequently analyze other secondary issues associated with it. Once these matters have been discussed and understood, attention can then be turned to establishing a correlation between ELF and pedagogy, which will finally lead to trainees organizing and implementing an ELF action plan in the classroom.

Throughout the different stages here presented and expanded on (considering the responses from the study), it is understood how participants go through a reflective and critical analysis that helps them apprehend not only the basic concepts surrounding the ELF debate, but also other essential secondary issues and their pedagogical implications. In the end, the aim is for them to become fully aware of what ELF is and what it involves, so as to help them decide on whether it is a viable alternative or additional approach for their specific context, and to what extent it can be put into action. It is important to not forget that each new situation needs to be evaluated, taking into account the setting, the aims established from the beginning (either by a higher authority or by the teacher), the students involved as well as their language level.

Conclusion

This final section presents a summary of the dissertation. It begins by including an outline of the main concepts reflected on, so as to afterwards review the research questions presented and the methodology chosen to answer those questions. Subsequently, a brief synopsis of the findings is given as well as of the transformative framework presented. Afterwards, the limitations of this research are briefly considered, together with areas that may be further expanded on in future research. Finally, the chapter ends with the contributions and implications of this dissertation for ELF and ELT research in Portugal.

This dissertation began by considering the spread of English and the various roles it has assumed within several countries and domains as a native language, second language, foreign language and, last but not least, as a lingua franca or international language used by many people in a wide array of circumstances. After considering each of its different functions, it was observed how the current use of English mainly takes place among NNSs, who use it in both intranational and international situations.

As it was also seen, several models have been proposed in what concerns the spread of English and its functions; however, Kachru's Concentric circle model (1985) – despite its innumerable limitations – was the one chosen as the basis for this study, due to its usefulness in understanding the sociolinguistic reality of the spread of English at a global level.

With the basis for the study established, the notions of EFL and ELF were afterwards taken into consideration. However, before this could be done, several vital concepts were here revisited, namely variety, community, language ownership and intelligibility, which in light of the present day use of English are no longer circumscribed to Inner circle values. For instance, due to the large number of diverse users and situations of use, defining a variety has become increasingly difficult due to the extended functional range and great depth English has acquired. In addition, because of its diversity, the notion of community was also revised. Traditionally associated with physical proximity and social cohesion, nowadays, English use has become more associated with flexible communities of practice, with a variety of interlocutors gathering (either physically or virtually) for specific reasons. Because of

this, the notion of ownership in English was also reconsidered. Customarily, NSs are deemed the gatekeepers of correct language use; however, due to the large number of NNSs of English, ownership has come to include all those who use, adapt and change the language according to their needs, regardless of their mother tongue. The notion of intelligibility, customarily linked to correct pronunciation, lexis and grammar, was lastly reflected upon, as nowadays it has grown to also include situational, social and (inter)cultural awareness to evaluate different lingua franca situations.

With these issues in mind, EFL and ELF were then compared and contrasted taking into account the Expanding circle context. In case of EFL, it has conventionally been associated with the modern foreign languages paradigm; that is, defined formally regarding its reference to native speaker norms. From this perspective, language acquisition is centered on a target linguaculture and anything diverging from it is deemed as an error. ELF, in contrast, is associated with the World Englishes paradigm; it is classified functionally in relation to its use in intercultural communication, where importance is given to pragmatic strategies that help interlocutors to accommodate to their interlocutors.

Considering these issues, the notions of intercultural communication and lingua franca English were established as having important implications in English use in general and in ELT in specific. Although nowadays most interactions take place within lingua franca settings, ELT still continues very much associated with native speaker standards. Due to the multiplicity of English language use and settings, it is obviously impossible to distinguish every variety of English or the diverse cultural backgrounds of interlocutors; therefore, the need for users/learners of English to develop the necessary skills and knowledge for intercultural communication and negotiating the multiplicity of English varieties.

This, however, has not always been the case, as it was mentioned in the chapter dedicated to foreign language teaching. Throughout history, the teaching/learning of foreign languages has widely varied due to the proficiency skills required and the changes in theories of language learning/teaching. While in the past the Grammar-Translation Method may have met the needs for written contact, with the turn of the twentieth century, the demand for oral proficiency grew alongside the increasing chances for communication. As a result, more importance was given to oral skills, and to more communicative language teaching approaches. Regardless of the teaching method/approach chosen by teachers, it is its practicality that should be

considered in order for it to be successfully applied. Furthermore, teachers should also be taught how to draw on different methods/approaches, and be able to use, adapt and add on to them according to their specific needs and situations. In this sense, teacher education programs play a vital role not only in reviewing what has been established, but also in disseminating new ways of looking at language teaching that meet society's needs.

As it was also discussed, Applied Linguistics and Corpus Linguistics have likewise played a central role in documenting language use and change throughout time, which, in its turn, has led language users to doubt the validity of conforming to native speaker norms as a guarantee for successful communication. The variety of studies carried out in what concerns ELF and ELT, not only have a descriptive function, but also a considerable impact in teacher functions, course objectives, curriculum design, teaching materials as well as assessment. Some of the main ideas brought forth include language learners as simultaneously language users, who exploit the linguistic resources available, as well as their communicative potential to continue on learning. In this sense, instead of perceiving English as a static form, in which learners first study the language to use it afterwards; preference is given to a functional perspective, where language learning is perceived through its use.

As far as culture is concerned, it was also mentioned how, instead of fomenting the idea of one country, one language and one culture, the teaching of culture has, in part, become more focused on experienced culture and personal cultural encounters, especially owing to the proliferation in travel and the widespread use of the Internet. Instead of homogenous and stationary national concepts, it is much more useful to concentrate on developing notions of (inter)cultural awareness.

Of the several approaches referred to in terms of cultural awareness, Byram's five *savoirs* (1997) were further expanded on, as he highlights the fact that not only is the knowledge of culture important, but so are the skills to understand, interact and employ that knowledge in intercultural situations, hence contributing to intercultural communicative competence. Seeing as language and culture are dynamic and transient concepts, in which cultural identities are negotiated and fluid, it is crucial learners develop a critical stance for them to move between different cultures and languages in multicultural societies (Guilherme 2002). Baker (2009) was also further considered because of how he similarly believes it is important to concentrate on the intercultural encounters themselves, to analyze how culturally influenced behaviors

are expressed, and how these are negotiated by interlocutors. With each new encounter, interlocutors continuously reassess and change their intercultural knowledge, awareness and skills; and by doing so, they realign themselves towards a goal that is constantly changing and that will never be complete.

The same was also mentioned when considering issues of identity, as nowadays people juggle multiple identities and are constantly adapting to different situations, in which the chosen language acknowledges the identity they wish to assume within a certain community. As it was seen, at international level, English is usually the chosen language to identify with a particular group.

Furthermore, the notion of identity associated with ELT teachers has likewise been a sensitive topic, as language educators sometimes aspire to be mistaken as NSs in what regards language, pronunciation and cultural knowledge; and when that is impossible, an inferiority complex arises, greatly affecting their teaching capabilities. For that reason, ELF has proven to be an alternative way of looking at these notions, boosting teachers' confidence as capable and professional language educators, who are prepared and familiar with their learners' contexts.

When looking at teaching materials, it was observed how these too have gone through several changes over the course of time. Traditionally, textbooks have been the core of ELT curricula and have been organized in such a way, that emphasis is placed on Standard English and a dominant type of culture. However, nowadays, an exclusively textbook oriented approach does not quite meet ends with the majority of the communicative interactions, therefore, making it central that materials reflect the variations in language use by resorting to different types of resources, such as texts from a variety of language speakers, locally produced materials, social research-based projects, among others. Essentially what matters is how different types of materials can be exploited so that they not only reflect learners' needs, but also explore the intercultural nature of social interactions; hence, the importance of an ELF approach in teacher education programs for future language educators to be duly prepared.

After comparing and contrasting the EFL and ELF paradigms, teachers' resistance to change was also observed. As it was verified, research findings in ELF have presented considerable challenges to existing ELT beliefs and practices, and any changes applied to curricula or that require teachers to reexamine their pedagogic practices often generate controversy and are especially unsettling (Roberts 1998). This is especially the case with many NNESTs for whom having some type of

standard continues to be a strongly held desire. NESTs, on the contrary, are described as more open to diversity, more focused on oral skills and more tolerant, giving more importance to the message rather than to form. When comparing the two groups, the high regard for native speaker norms among NNESTs further accentuates the NS/NNS divide, in which NNESTs continue to look for NSs to affirm their authority and give them a sign of appreciation. This can result, however, in NNESTs despising their own non-nativeness, subsequently leading to a lack of self-confidence in their role as educators (Llurda 2009).

One way to empower them is to design teacher education programs, where ELF and its impact in ELT can be reflected on. It is important to understand though that new paradigms can only emerge and come to have an effective presence in language classrooms, if (future) language teachers actively participate in discussions on the topics, as well as on the renationalization of the language (McKay 2003). By doing so, NNESTs begin to feel more liberated from the NS/NNS divide, becoming actively involved in understanding different paradigm shifts, which will rebalance their attitudes, beliefs and knowledge (Guilherme 2002). In this sense, when considering teacher programs, it was argued how more attention should be paid to the education of trainees rather than to their training, so that they can assess the implications of ELF use in their own contexts and how to accordingly adapt their teaching approaches.

After having reflected on the central concepts surrounding ELF and ELT at an international level, the Portuguese situation was finally assessed. The current presence of English was observed within several domains of use, and so was the historical context of ELT and the several educational reforms that took place until today. With these observations, it became evident that, in Portugal, there exists a gap between what concerns a theoretical approach to ELF, what is effectively noted in curricular programs, what is taught, and how and with whom English is in fact used. For that reason, this dissertation sought out to study the current situation of ELT in Portugal and how an ELF approach could be further integrated through pre-service teacher education programs, focusing more specifically on the role these programs have in molding future ELT teachers' outlooks (and who will subsequently mold their students' beliefs). Bearing this in mind, five public universities offering teacher

education programs with an English component were taken into account and so were the teacher trainees enrolled in those programs, who actively participated in the study.

Considering the above research aims, these were formalized through two main research questions:

5. Do pre-service teacher education programs have an effect on the attitudes of teacher trainees in terms of language and teaching? In other words, is there a difference in trainees' attitudes when comparing them at the beginning and then at end of their studies?
6. To what extent are pre-service teachers' opinions on ELT influenced by their time spent abroad and language teaching experience? With these two notions in mind, up to what point do they also affect the following more specific issues:
 - What motivational factors do they believe guide students' current English language use and do these opinions go in line with their practices?
 - Do trainees demonstrate a linguistically and culturally attached outlook toward the two main English-speaking communities (British and American), or is their position more internationally focused and ideologically neutral?
 - How do they view native speakerness and non-native speakerness in what concerns language aims and their role as ELT teachers?

In order to investigate these questions, a mixed method approach was applied, which relied on both quantitative and qualitative strategies of inquiry. The primary research instrument used was an online survey, followed afterwards by individual semi-structured interviews and the analysis of official documentation, such as university curricula or the official ELT programs from the Ministry of Education.

When considering the first research question, the findings suggested that there are some pertinent changes in trainees' opinions when comparing those at the beginning and those at the end of their studies, although not as many as it would be desired. Some of the relevant aspects drawn from the questionnaire include, for instance, trainees' expectations in terms of students' language production, in which it was noted how in the first year they tend to favor consistency of variety use, while in the second, they display some openness to mixing different varieties when using English.

Furthermore, regarding the importance of different language varieties in ELT, trainees favor AmE and BrE, although there was a relative increase in the relevance of other varieties from the first to the second year. The same was verified when in the first year, trainees in general state a standard variety is the most important issue in ELT, while in the second year a lingua franca perspective is recognized as number one, at least at a theoretical level.

Regarding culture, in the first year, preference was once more shown in favor of the two main L1 cultures; however, in the second year, these two cultures clearly lose ground in comparison with other English-speaking cultures.

As for developing listening and reading skills, even though native speaker teaching materials (American and British) are deemed in both years as the ideal models of appropriate English language use in terms of written and oral production, among second year trainees there is a considerable rise in favor of non-native produced materials, that is, resources from the Expanding circle, of which Portugal is a part of.

Considering these issues, it can be argued that teacher education programs do have some impact on broadening and changing trainees' opinions in certain areas; however, in others, the impact is not as significant, thus the NS and its associated values continue in a predominant position. Proof of this was visible when considering that the majority of the trainees are only familiar with the two main varieties (BrE and AmE), which will undoubtedly affect the type of English and teaching materials used. Furthermore, even though trainees recognized their own importance and merit as ELT teachers, the majority in both years believes learners should have contact with NESTs while learning English (only a very low percentage believes only NNESTs are enough).

There are also other examples of responses that did not vary greatly between first and second year trainees; however, these demonstrate how right from the beginning, trainees are sensitive to the international use of English and the need to get learners to communicate and use language. For instance, practically every participant recognizes the international role of English, as well as how it belongs to all those who speak it, since interactions mainly occur between NNSs. In addition, when looking at speaking skills, the majority believes they center more attention on teaching how to develop communicative strategies and how to use language appropriately, rather than on achieving a native speaker accent or similar. As for writing, instead of solely

abiding to a single standard variety, the great majority stated it is acceptable to use both AmE and BrE interchangeably, and that it is more important to stimulate learners to be proficient writers, who can communicate effectively (even if some mistakes are made) and write according to context (genre/ register).

In answer to the second research question, the findings demonstrated that responses do in effect vary on whether trainees had spent time abroad, and whether they had teaching experience prior to enrolling in their respective teacher education programs.

In the first case, it was verified that on the whole, when comparing the answers received, those who have effectively traveled and spent time abroad tend to be more open to diversity in terms of language teaching and language use.

As for prior teaching experience, it too plays a central role in how trainees perceive ELT. It was visible that those with no or fewer teaching experience are usually more open to change their opinions on various issues, hence broadening their outlooks; while on the opposite end, those more experienced exhibited less openness to modify their opinions. It is worth noting though that, in some cases, this latter group displays standard-based attitudes, while in others, they exhibit more openness in terms of students' language use, giving particular value to getting students to communicate, for example.

On a similar note, when considering learners' motivating factors for learning the language, those with more professional experience tended to take on a more international stance, as they consider learners mostly use English to speak with other NNSs, to communicate in international settings and seek further job opportunities, while trainees with fewer or no experience believed learners mostly need English to speak with NSs and to go work/study in an English-speaking country.

In line with the previous example, when enquired on learners' language use – consistency or mixing of varieties – trainees without any teaching experience manifested preference in favor of consistency, while those with some experience (1-5 years) were the ones to most change their opinions in favor of letting learners mix varieties. When observing the experience abroad variable, it was among those who have also traveled that the shift in favor of mixing varieties is likewise most visible from the first to the second year.

The same was once more perceptible when considering different English varieties and their importance in ELT. Those who have gone abroad manifest more

openness to other varieties, while those who have not, have a more neutral opinion and regard those varieties as less important. As for teaching experience, when considering the importance of other English varieties and L2 varieties, it is among those with none or little experience that there is a substantial rise in favor from the first to the second year.

In what concerns English language skills, when contemplating writing, trainees who have traveled considered the main factor to encourage is communication (especially genre and register), as opposed to abiding by a standard. As for teaching experience, trainees with none or little experience are more inclined to follow standards, when compared to those who have more teaching practice; although, it is also true that those without experience are also more open to view teaching differently, perhaps because they have not yet been affected by in-classroom practices. As for the respondents with more teaching practice, these seemed to value the notion of communicability above all, regardless of language per se being correct or consistent with a standard.

As for speaking skills, those who have traveled were more likely to agree with issues of communicability as one aspect to develop with their learners; notwithstanding, it is interesting to note that both travelers and non-travelers deemed language appropriateness as the most fundamental matter. It is among those who have never gone abroad however that answers most oscillated from the first to the second year in favor of speaking with a Portuguese accent, of being proficient although with some mistakes, of developing communicative strategies and of using language accordingly. With these responses, it can be presumed that the master programs and/or traineeships have some say in this transformation. When taking into account the variable of ELT experience, it was verified that those with more experience tend to be set in their opinions and recognize the importance of issues related with communication and appropriateness; while those with no or fewer experience, in addition to being preoccupied with these two issues, also consider nativeness an aspect to reflect on (in the first year at least this is more visible). Nevertheless, once again, it was observed that trainees with no teaching experience were the ones particularly more susceptible to change their opinions from the first to the second year of their studies, meaning that the teacher programs to some extent do mold trainees' opinions and attitudes.

When looking at the teaching materials for listening and reading skills, the great majority favored British and American materials. However, when taking into account time spent abroad, those who have already traveled further recognized the importance of using resources produced in other NS countries, L2 countries and NNS countries, while those who have never gone abroad demonstrated higher degrees of uncertainty. In what regards teaching experience, those with no previous practice were the ones to most change their opinions favorably to support different types of listening and reading resources. Similarly to what was verified in the other skills, when compared to those with more years of practice, these trainees are particularly more receptive to different views and approaches. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that throughout all levels of experience, the link with native materials continues to be particularly strong. Once more, these results were not unforeseen when considering how ELT has been greatly shaped by the British variety and culture.

After having reviewed some of the main aspects identified throughout the study, it is evident how the different variables have an impact on how language is perceived. With this in mind, it is obvious that knowledge of the trainees' backgrounds does have its own place in teacher education courses; it is only by first understanding where they come from, that teacher trainers can afterwards recognize what aspects can and should be developed with group.

Considering the importance of being familiar with trainees and their backgrounds, as well as how an ELF approach can be further expounded in teacher education programs, an ELF-aware transformative framework was here presented based on Sifakis' work (2007, 2009). Its intention is not to radically change trainees' opinions, but instead to challenge these adult learners' traditional "meaning perspectives" and to foment awareness to the existing diversity in terms of language use; by doing so, trainees learn to develop the necessary confidence to confront the several issues they feel more uncomfortable with and hopefully liberate themselves from the grip of the standard native speaker model.

The impact teacher development has for a trainees' future is therefore greater than just concentrating on teacher training. The aim of the proposed framework is not to impose single view on language and ELT, but rather to encourage trainees to employ a critical and reflective analysis to understand and examine the issues. Bearing this in mind, the transformative framework takes trainees through five different stages – the preparation, identification, awareness, transformation and

planning stages – which, in the end, contribute to them understanding what ELF is and what it entails, so as to guide them in making a proper decision on whether it is a feasible approach for their own context, and to what extent it can be implemented.

Like in any other research, though, it goes without saying that this study also has its limitations that can lead to further investigation. One key limitation, as it was already mentioned, was the conditions in which the study was applied. Being this an exploratory study, the conclusions from the research can only be based on this particular group; making it difficult to come to general assumptions, as responses cannot represent the total population in question. This is especially the case for responses that did not indicate a clear tendency in favor or against a certain issue; in those cases though in which there was an obvious inclination, it may be tentatively suggested as a characteristic of trainees in general, however, without much assurance. Even though this research links the opinions of teacher trainees to English/ELT and ELF, these issues can and should continue to be further explored (and even extended to in-service teachers), as teacher education programs would greatly benefit from further studies, as would policy makers and ministries of education.

Another limitative issue is the fact that the ELF-aware transformative framework here explored for pre-service teacher education programs has not yet been applied in Portuguese universities. Similar frameworks have been employed with in-service teachers elsewhere and to a certain extent with pre-service teachers as well (as seen in the case of Dortmund); however, each scenario is unique, hence the importance of observing its impact on trainees. Further research on the practical applicability of this framework is necessary, but for this to be done, more time is necessary to go from university to university, and work with trainees directly in order to get to know them and follow their progress and reactions. With the feedback retrieved, the issues put forth can then be further revised and molded according to each specific context.

Moreover, it can also be argued that the ELF transformative framework in teacher education raises additional concerns that go beyond the range of this research. Bearing this in mind, there are some questions that can be further delved into in other studies, such as: To what extent is teacher education really accountable for those transformed by the change in outlook? Or, what impact will an ELF-aware framework have on ELT teachers professionally, where will it lead them?

Taking into consideration now the contributions and implications of the research, this dissertation began by offering a general characterization of English use and ELT from a lingua franca perspective, so as to afterwards center its attention on the Portuguese context. Furthermore, it also evaluated the importance of pre-service teacher education programs in the development of future ELT educators, and how these may handle the different linguistic and cultural notions associated with ELF in ELT.

The findings suggested that English is clearly used as an international language, in which specific value is given to communication; however, despite its global and dynamic use, there are linguistic and cultural values that persist connected to native speaker standards. Empirical evidence of the type here presented is therefore necessary to better understand how future ELT educators view these values, and how they can be studied and taught in order to portray a more global view of English in classrooms. These findings add further support as well to the demand to move away from the authority of native models regarding communication, culture and language.

This study attempted to likewise illustrate how an ELF approach can be integrated within pre-service teacher education programs. It suggests that more attention be given to the education of trainees rather than to just their training; that is, instead of simply focusing on pedagogical practices that adhere to a single native variety and its associated culture, trainees should learn how to adopt a more flexible approach to both language and culture.

In addition, this study also aimed to contribute to a better understanding of concepts like intelligibility, language ownership, (inter)cultural awareness and intercultural communicative competence, which when misinterpreted, may lead to the not uncommon “inferiority complex” felt by many non-native teachers. In this sense, it attempts to empower (future) NNESTs, so that they feel encouraged and confident as qualified teachers, who can bring into the classroom a different and innovative outlook.

In addition to its several contributions, this research also has implications for ELT and teacher education. It joins the already extensive work questioning the prevalent native speaker model of communication, culture and language in ELT, in addition to also suggesting the implementation of an ELF-aware transformative framework within teacher education programs. The framework proposed indicates not only the several stages trainees need to experience in order to become fully aware of

the concept of ELF, but also how to assume a critical and reflective stance when deciding on whether it may be an additional approach for their specific educational context.

All in all, this dissertation has strived to offer both a theoretical and empirically based study of the relationship between ELF, ELT and teacher education in the Expanding circle context. As it was observed, English is longer viewed as a simple vehicle for expressing a limited set of national identities and cultures; instead, it has become the chosen medium of communication at an international level, and as a result, it is necessary to move away from the dominance of Inner circle countries.

When compared to EFL, ELF is more dynamic and complex, leading to an almost unavoidable tension between the demand for that of fluidity (ELF) and that of fixity (EFL). In order to navigate these waters, a deeper understanding of culture and language is necessary; so, teachers, learners and users need both preparation and training to successfully engage in intercultural communication. In order for this to be achieved though, a good command of the grammar and lexis of a standard variety will not suffice. It is here then that an ELF approach enters, proposing a different set of skills and knowledge for intercultural settings.

Both the study and the framework here proposed have attempted to conceptualize and provide empirical evidence of the necessary knowledge and skills for effective ELF communication, as well as how these may afterwards be transposed to ELT contexts. It is central both students and teachers realize they are no longer restrained by unattainable or inappropriate models, and that a lingua franca approach will allow them to focus on effective communication across linguistic and cultural boundaries. Instead of fomenting the acquisition of standard native speaker norms, emphasis is placed on acquiring linguistic features, cultural knowledge and communicative strategies that can in fact facilitate communication.

With this in mind, teacher education programs arise as the necessary link between what is done at a theoretical level at universities and how the knowledge trainees acquire is subsequently implemented during their student teaching experience. With this type of innovative framework, it is hoped teacher preparation programs can be seen as the gateway to bridge the existing gap between theory and practice when it comes to ELF and ELT.

To conclude, this link may be taken even further to establish connections with material writers, policy makers and even ministries of education. Therefore, it is also hoped that such new insights will contribute to bringing about change in what concerns pedagogic policies and practices in ELT, so classes can better reflect English users' needs.

This is an especially pressing issue at the moment in Portugal, as changes in ELT will soon be implemented in primary schools, which will subsequently and inevitably affect the remaining levels of English throughout the education system. With this in mind, the time has come to review the various ELT programs put forth by the Ministry of Education, so as to adopt them to the twenty-first century use of English, and equip both teachers and learners with the necessary skills to successfully communicate in intercultural and international settings.

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Appendices

Appendix 1

QUESTIONNAIRE

ELT – English Language Today and English Language Teaching

O meu nome é Lili Cavalheiro e sou aluna de doutoramento na Faculdade de Letras da Universidade de Lisboa. Estou a fazer um estudo sobre os mestrados em ensino em inglês, mais especificamente sobre o modo como os mestrados encaram a língua inglesa e o seu ensino, tanto no início como no fim dos seus estudos, após alguma experiência em sala de aula. Venho, por isso, pedir a vossa colaboração para responder a um pequeno inquérito enquanto alunos do mestrado em ensino na variante de inglês. Nesse sentido, apelo à vossa participação e peço-vos cerca de 10 minutos do vosso tempo. Não há respostas certas ou erradas, e o curso e/ou o aluno em questão não estão de maneira alguma a ser avaliados. As respostas e o tratamento de dados são estritamente confidenciais.

Muito obrigada!

1. Year of Birth: _____

2. Sex:

☐ Male

☐ Female

3. Country of birth: _____

4. University:

☐ Universidade Nova de Lisboa

☐ Universidade de Coimbra

☐ Universidade de Lisboa

☐ Universidade de Porto

☐ Universidade do Minho

5. Did you major in English/North-American studies in your B.A. degree?

☐ Yes

☐ No

6. Number of years you have been studying English:

- ☐ 7-9 years
☐ 10-12 years
☐ 13+ years

7. Evaluate your English language skills according to the CEFR.

7.1 Listening	7.2 Reading	7.3 Speaking	7.4 Writing
A1	A1	A1	A1
A2	A2	A2	A2
B1	B1	B1	B1
B2	B2	B2	B2
C1	C1	C1	C1
C2	C2	C2	C2

8. Have you ever spent time in a foreign country?

- ☐ Yes
☐ No

9. If you answered “yes” in question 8, complete the following table:

Country/ies	Duration of stay (weeks/months/years)	Language of communication

10. What experience do you have in English Language Teaching?

- ☐ None
☐ 1-5 years
☐ 6-10 years
☐ 11-15 years
☐ 16-20 years

11. How often do you use English?

- ☐ Never
☐ Rarely
☐ Often
☐ Very Often
☐ Always

12. Situations in which you use English: (more than one answer may be chosen)

- 12.1. ☐ Work
- 12.2. ☐ Traveling
- 12.3. ☐ Friends/family
- 12.4. ☐ Social Networking/chatting
- 12.5. ☐ Computer
- 12.6. ☐ Other: _____

13. Describe the English you use: (choose only one)

- ☐ American English or similar
- ☐ British English or similar
- ☐ Mixture of British and American English
- ☐ Mixture of British and/or American English with traces from the Portuguese
- ☐ Other: _____

14. When you use English to communicate, it is usually with:

- ☐ Native speakers (NSs)
- ☐ Non-native speakers (NNSs)

15. The English language belongs to:

- ☐ Only its native speakers
- ☐ Whoever uses it (NSs, L2 speakers & NNSs included)

16. English is:

- ☐ The language spoken in Anglophone countries
- ☐ The language used worldwide in international communication

17. Select the variety/ies of English you are familiar with: (more than one variety may be chosen)

- 17.1. ☐ American English
- 17.2. ☐ British English
- 17.3. ☐ Other native varieties (e.g. Canadian English, Australian English)
- 17.4. ☐ L2 varieties (e.g. Indian English, Singaporean English)
- 17.5. ☐ English spoken by NNSs with an accent influenced by their mother tongue

18. Students' goals when learning English are to:

1- Strongly Agree 2- Agree 3- Undecided 4- Disagree 5- Strongly Disagree

		1	2	3	4	5	Don't know
18.1.	Write personal documents (e.g. emails, letters)						
18.2.	Write professional documents (e.g. emails, reports)						
18.3.	Chat with friends online or for social networking						
18.4.	Read for personal reasons (e.g. books, magazines)						
18.5.	Read for professional reasons (e.g. textbooks, reports)						
18.6.	Read internet sites						
18.7.	Mainly speak with NSs						
18.8.	Mainly speak with NNSs						
18.9.	Communicate when in English-speaking countries						
18.10.	Communicate in international situations						
18.11.	Listen to music						
18.12.	Watch television shows or films without subtitles						
18.13.	Have more job perspectives						
18.14.	Go study / work in an English-speaking country						
18.15.	Become familiar with the people / culture of English-speaking countries						

19. When teaching English, teachers should stress to students that they:

- ☐ Be consistent in one standard variety
- ☐ Can mix different varieties (e.g. British English and American English)
- ☐ Other: _____

20. When learning English it is preferable that students have teachers who are:

- ☐ NSs
- ☐ NNSs
- ☐ Both NSs and NNSs
- ☐ It does not matter

21. Consider the following varieties and their importance in ELT.

		Very important	Important	Neutral	Unimportant	Very unimportant	Don't know
21.1	American English						
21.2	British English						
21.3	Other native varieties						
21.4	L2 varieties						
21.5	Neutral variety of English not associated with a specific country						

**22. When teaching English what do you find it is more important to focus on?
Rank the options according to importance:**

1= the most important to 5= the least important

22.1.	A standard variety (American or British English)
22.2.	Language taught as a Lingua Franca with a global dimension
22.3.	Varieties from other countries – Post-Colonial or other emerging English varieties (e.g. Indian, Singaporean, Nigerian English)
22.4.	A syllabus where specific practical fields are focused on (e.g. business, tourism, technology, etc.)
22.5.	Other: _____

23. Consider the following statements and place them on a scale from 1 to 5.

1- strongly agree 2- mostly agree 3- undecided 4- mostly disagree 5- strongly disagree

	<i>I think...</i>	1	2	3	4	5	Don't know
23.1	NS teachers play a fundamental role in the correct use of the language.						
23.2	NNS teachers play a fundamental role in the correct use of the language.						
23.3	I should spend more time getting students to obtain a native-like accent.						
23.4	I should spend more time trying to eradicate mistakes typical of European NNSs.						
23.5	I should spend more time getting students to communicate in English.						
23.6	It is important to teach that various cultures use English differently.						
23.7	It is important to teach English features/ strategies that make oneself understood internationally and not only in some societies.						

24. In terms of the importance of which cultures should be taught in English classes, rank the following options from 1 to 6.

1 the most important – 6 the least important

24.1.	American culture
24.2.	British culture
24.3	Cultures from other English-speaking countries (e.g. Ireland, Canada, etc.)
24.4.	Cultures from L2 countries (e.g. India, Singapore, etc.)
24.5.	Other worldwide cultures (e.g. China, Germany, Brazil, etc.)
24.6.	Students' own culture (e.g. Portuguese in Portugal)

25. When teaching writing skills, the most important aspects to focus on are to:

1- Strongly Agree 2- Agree 3- Undecided 4- Disagree 5- Strongly Disagree

		1	2	3	4	5	Don't know
25.1	Write according to the American standard variety						
25.2	Write according to the British standard variety						
25.3	Write without grammar mistakes, even if American and British varieties are used interchangeably (e.g. lexis, spelling)						
25.4	Be a proficient writer (some mistakes are made, but communication is effective)						
25.5	Learn to write appropriately according to the context (genre/ register)						

26. When teaching speaking skills, the most important aspects to focus on are to:

1- Strongly Agree 2- Agree 3- Undecided 4- Disagree 5- Strongly Disagree

		1	2	3	4	5	Don't know
26.1	Achieve a NS accent or similar						
26.2	Be a proficient speaker, even if with a Portuguese accent						
26.3	Be a proficient speaker, even if some mistakes (grammar or pronunciation) are made, but no hindrance in communication						
26.4	Develop communicative strategies (e.g. repetition, paraphrasing) to communicate effectively in a wide number of situations						
26.5	Learn to use language appropriately according to the situations (formal/informal)						

27. When teaching listening and reading skills, the most important aspects to focus on are to have access to:

1- Strongly Agree 2- Agree 3- Undecided 4- Disagree 5- Strongly Disagree

		1	2	3	4	5	Don't know
27.1	American written texts, audio files and films/documentaries						
27.2	British written texts, audio files and films/documentaries						
27.3	Written texts, audio files and films/documentaries produced in other NS countries (Australia, Canada, etc.)						
27.4	Written texts, audio files and films/documentaries produced in Postcolonial countries that also use English (e.g. India, South Africa, etc.)						
27.5	Written texts, audio files and films/documentaries produced in NNS countries (e.g. Portugal)						

28. If you are willing to participate in an interview please contact: _____

Thank you for participating!

Appendix 2

OUTLINE OF STUDENT POPULATION AND RESPONSES

1 ST YEAR TRAINEES: SEPTEMBER/ OCTOBER 2011							
	Students attending			Questionnaires received			
	Male	Female	TOTAL	Male	Female	TOTAL	%
UC	0	6	6	0	3	3	50
UL	1	4	5	1	2	3	60
UNL	2	9	11	0	7	7	63.6
UP	1	16	17	1	11	12	70.6
UM	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
TOTAL	4	35	39	2	23	25	64.1%
1 ST YEAR TRAINEES: SEPTEMBER/ OCTOBER 2012							
	Students attending			Questionnaires received			
	Male	Female	TOTAL	Male	Female	TOTAL	%
UC	1	5	6	0	4	4	66.6
UL	1	5	6	1	2	3	50
UNL	5	4	9	4	4	8	88.8
UP	6	20	26	4	14	18	69.2
UM	0	6	6	0	3	3	50
TOTAL	13	40	53	9	27	36	67.9
2 ND YEAR TRAINEES: MARCH/ APRIL 2012							
	Students attending			Questionnaires received			
	Male	Female	TOTAL	Male	Female	TOTAL	%
UC	0	9	9	0	5	5	55.6
UL	1	2	3	1	1	2	66.7
UNL	1	6	7	1	4	5	71.4
UP	1	18	19	0	11	11	57.9
UM	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
TOTAL	3	35	38	1	21	23	60.5
2 ND YEAR TRAINEES: MARCH/ APRIL 2013							
	Students attending			Questionnaires received			
	Male	Female	TOTAL	Male	Female	TOTAL	%
UC	0	6	6	0	4	4	66.7
UL	1	6	7	1	2	3	42.8
UNL	4	4	8	2	4	6	75%
UP	1	6	7	1	3	4	57.1
UM	1	7	8	1	7	8	100
TOTAL	7	29	36	5	19	24	66.7

Appendix 3

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Background

1. In the questionnaire you mentioned that you spent some time abroad, did that experience change the way you look at/think about the English language? If so, in what ways has it changed?
2. In the questionnaire you mentioned that you had some prior experience in English teaching before enrolling in the Teaching M.A. degree, where did you teach (private school, language school, tutoring)?

Masters course

3. Why do you feel it is important to do a M.A. in ELT?
4. What were your initial expectations for the M.A.? And now towards the end, do you feel those expectations were met?
5. Regarding the M.A.:
 - 5.1. What did you think was most useful for your future teaching career?
 - 5.2. If you could suggest any changes in your M.A. degree, what suggestions would you make?
 - 5.3. Should more emphasis be placed on some specific topic? Explore.
6. Part of your M.A. degree includes student teaching, what levels did you teach?

Teaching

7. Focusing on teaching:
 - 7.1. Teaching a language is also associated with teaching culture. What cultures/issues/topics do you believe are most important to focus on?
 - 7.2. What do you think is more important in terms of written skills?
 - 7.3. What do you think is more important in terms of oral communication skills?
 - 7.4. In the questionnaire you gave your opinion on teaching materials. However, in practice what types of materials do you mostly use/rely on?
8. You are now towards the end of your training course, do you think your English proficiency has improved?

NNS / ELF

9. As a non-native English-speaking teacher (NNEST), comment on the current role NNESTs have in ELT.
10. During your studies, were you introduced to the terms “English as a Lingua Franca” or “English as an International Language”?
 - 10.1. What do these terms mean to you?
 - 10.2. Do you believe these notions are implemented in ELT programs? If not, how can they be implemented?
11. If you could make some modifications in the ELT programs (put forth by the Ministry of Education for all educational levels), what suggestions would you give?

Appendix 4

TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS

(Litzenberg 2013: 242)

Units:

Word	<space>
Truncated word	-

Speakers:

Speaker identity/turn start	:
Speech overlap	[

Transitional continuity:

Final	.
Continuing	.
Appeal	?

Speech factors:

Continuing/ continued speech	→
Pause (longer than 1 second)	<X sec>
Pause (long)	...
Pause (short)	..
Laughter	@@@

Other:

Transcription notes/ comments	[note/ comment]
Participant actions/ behaviors	<action/ behavior>
Edited continuous speech/ edited interaction	[...]

Appendix 5

INTERVIEW SAMPLE (EXCERPT OF TRANSCRIPTION)

Date: May 14, 2013
Key: LC: Lili Cavaleiro (interviewer)
INT_2: interviewee

- LC: In the questionnaire you mentioned you spent some time abroad. Did that experience changes the way you look at or think about the English Language?
- INT_2: Yeah. Definitely.
- LC: In what ways, would you say?
- UL2: Uh.. I think it's really different when you learn a language in your native country and you don't have contact with native people. Once you get the chance to be... surrounded by the English language every day, every minute, it really makes a difference and I think that really...gives you a lot of...more...I would say, how should I say that...uh...a better capacity to deal with the students later on...
- LC: [Hum, hum.]
- INT_2:... with any question that they may ask, whatever problems that may come up, I think.
- LC: Ok. So you think that it was a great contribute to your teaching?
- INT_2: Absolutely.
- LC: Ok. And would you say this is only in English speaking countries, but also your experience in non-native English speaking countries where you used English as language of communication?
- INT_2: Yeah. I think that any kind of experience that you may have with the foreign language that you work with can be... a great contribution to whatever you do later with the language.
- LC: Uh, uh. Ok. In the questionnaire you also mentioned that you had some experience teaching prior to the master's course...
- INT_2: [Oh, yeah.]
- LC: ...right. What experience did you have? Was it in State schools, private schools?
- INT_2: Everywhere. Actually, before the master's I taught for twelve years.
- LC: Hum, hum.
- INT_2: So, I started in a private school where I stayed for seven years..
- LC: It wasn't a language school, it was a private school?
- INT_2: [Private school, yeah.]
- LC: Ok. Hum, hum.
- INT_2: I taught "segundo ciclo" and "terceiro ciclo" students..
- LC: Ok. Alright.
- INT_2: English and Portuguese there..
- LC: Ok.
- INT_2: ...and then at the same school, later on, I also taught primary students.. also in English.
- LC: Ok.
- INT_2: And.. in the meantime I also worked with the professional courses' adults. English, again.
- LC: Hum, hum.
- INT_2: And after those seven years at that school I.. did something else, something different.. which was just translation and interpretation..
- LC: Ok.

INT_2: ..I decided to travel around the world.. as an interpreter and.. after that I taught for one year at another private school and then...three State schools.. uh...only for primary students.

LC: Ok. So, that would be the AECs that you are talking about?

INT_2: [Yes.] Yes.

LC: Ok, alright, so you have quite vast experience on language teaching..

INT_2: [Yeah.][..and then language centers]

LC: ..ah.. language centers too. So, private language schools?

INT_2: Yes.

LC: Ok, alright. Very good. Uh.. so, considering all the experience that you have before doing the course, why do you feel it is important then to do this MA in language teaching, especially with the English component?

INT_2: Well, uh.. I think that.. well, at the beginning I have to be honest, I only did this because I had to. @@

LC: You had to. What do you mean, you had to?

INT_2: Because it's a rule now that if you want to go on teaching at basic and secondary school you really.. you have to be a professionalized teacher. So, I really didn't have a chance. I really had to do it and then I thought it was going to be rather boring and maybe I wouldn't learn anything at all.

LC: Hum, hum.

INT_2: Uh.. hopefully it was not like that and.. hum.. I ended up solving a big problem that I always had, which is about correction.. correcting... uh... written assignments by students.

LC: Ok.

INT_2: I've always had a problem with that. Yes, it always been very difficult for me to correct compositions.

LC: Hum, hum.

INT_2: And I always talked.. I've always talked with colleagues and asking them what do you do? Some people do like this, some people.. Everybody has a different view and it's not easy.. uh.. what I sometimes felt was that maybe I wasn't being, I wasn't being absolutely fair with all the students.

LC: Ok.

INT_2: And.. I had the opportunity to get in touch or learn about.. uh.. some pedagogical ways to solve this problem.

LC: Ok. So, you basically almost answered my next question, which was what were your initial expectations for the master's and were these expectations were met now towards the end?

INT_2: Yeah. My big expectation, well, it seems, it seems, if I say it like that it looks like is something very... it looks like it's...uh.. a minor thing. It's not, I.. I think, and when I get to the end now, and I find myself not only being able to correct compositions in a better way, but also how to teach students better..

LC: [Hum, hum.]

INT_2: because in the middle of the process I found out the problem was not just about the way I had to correct the compositions, but it was about the way I had to teach them and, if I taught them properly, they would be able to do it better and.. uh.. in the end I would be able to correct them better, also. So.. thinking about that and solving my problem.. made it worth it.

LC: Ok. Hum.. what.. regarding the MA now what do you think was most useful for your teaching career?

INT_2: Well.. there are several things that I think that were useful...uh.. I don't know if mean about didactics here at the Faculty or the...supervised...

LC: [Both.] Focusing on the master's course, you know, the classes that you had, but also your experience in the classroom, of course.

INT_2: Well. There are so many things. It's kind of difficult to answer that.. in one or two sentences. Uh.. well, that.. that part, which is about correcting written assignments, that's what I did in my project

LC: [Right. Hum, hum.]

INT_2: but also.. uh.. thinking about a lesson as a whole and not.. teaching things separately, because sometimes we just.. maybe because we don't know.. we haven't, we haven't made any reflection on that.. uh.. we just decide to teach them a theme and then we have exercises with.. grammar exercises which have nothing to do with the text that they've worked before and so I think I will try to choose.. well, I have the themes that you have to follow, but then.. try to have everything connected.

LC: Plan a lesson as a whole.

INT_2: Yeah. A lesson, a unit, as a whole.

LC: [Hum, hum.] Ok. Anything else?

INT_2: Yeah. I think that's it.

LC: Alright. If you could make any changes regarding the master's, especially about the English component, what suggestions would you make?

INT_2: Uuu.. well, I had.. how was it called, I am not sure what it was, IPP 3 or Didactics English, I get confused with the names of the subjects.. anyway, there was a part, which we had at the end of the third semester where we... learned about what is being done in Sidney.. uh.. the systemic functional pedagogy and we also learned about other possibilities, but I think that was a little bit late.

LC: Ok.

INT_2: I wish I had learned about that before, at the beginning.

LC: Hum, hum. So that could have come, should have come earlier

INT_2: [Yeah.]

LC: on, because this was in your third semester, so the second year of master's?

INT_2: Hum, hum.

LC: Ok.

INT_2: Maybe I would have done some of the things differently.

LC: Ok. Any other things that you could think of?

INT_2: Well..

LC: [Any other changes.]

INT_2: concerning.. no, the rest I think it's ok. Well, just thinking about the English. Yeah.

LC: Hum, hum. Ok. Should more emphasis be placed on a specific topic that you think during the course of the master's?

INT_2: Well <3 sec> throughout the course I haven't heard anything or learned anything about.. uh... "directores de turma". So.. uh.. maybe that should be covered also because now I am going back to teaching. I will be given, I will surely be given a class to be the "director de turma" and I am not sure how that works.

LC: [Hum, hum.]

INT_2: Well, I will solve the problem, of course, but maybe if I already had some clues, because I will solve the problem but I will solve this problem by talking with my colleagues and they will give their view. But, thinking about what I learned about writing, for example, and techniques and all those different pedagogical.. the changes that we should implement in teaching.. uh.. I used to do like everybody does and now here I learned a better way to do it. So, maybe also with another area like "directores de turma", if I had other views that would be good also because I could contrast them with what the colleagues do..

LC: [Ok.]

INT_2: ...currently.. and have been doing for forever..

LC: [Hum, hum.]

INT_2: ...and, sometimes, that is not absolutely correct or maybe we could add something else and, as I had the chance to do this course now, when I, when I, now when I am

- coming back to teaching I will definitely tell them, well, I've learned these things, and I am sure that some of the colleagues will welcome my new ideas, not all of them, of course, because people are just like that but I wish I also had.. uh.. new ideas about other things which we have to do in our job inevitably @@@
- LC: And the.. language component? English language, the ELT component, do you have anything that you think should be more emphasized?
- INT_2: [No.] No.
- LC: Ok. Uh... part of your MA included student teaching, right? What levels do you teach?
- INT_2: Year eleven and nine.
- LC: So, eleven and nine grade. Continuation, right?
- INT_2: Yes, continuation.
- LC: Ok. Moving ahead now and thinking about teaching, when we teach a language is also associated many times with teaching a culture, right?
- INT_2: Hum, hum.
- LC: So, when thinking about ELT, what cultures or issues or topics do you think are important to focus on..with the students?
- INT_2: I am not sure if the question is whether I should just teach British or American or South-African or..
- LC: It can be.. you can go along with that or, other topics that you find that are important as well besides talking about countries' cultures.
- INT_2: Well, I think that everything is important, especially nowadays that we live in a global world.. it's not just about what we do here or what we do there and, if we think about the western culture, there aren't many differences these days because it's kind of a global village. so.. uh... but I think that we should also include cultures that are really different from our culture.. I don't know, Indian, Chinese, sometimes that's interesting. For example, I had the chance to learn while I was teaching now about food and I learned about "obentos" which is something, which is very common in China.
- LC: [Ah. Never heard about it.]
- INT_2: yeah, which is.. the mothers there, they try to.. when they prepare the meal for the students to take to school they make like.. they try to draw dolls or something with the food, like with the rice, put some eyes with a bit of carrot and so on, so that when the kid looks at the plate..
- LC: Hum, hum.
- INT_2: they find it funny. It's a different, it's a different way of looking to food..
- LC: Exactly.
- INT_2: ...and I have never learned of that. It's interesting that in China they do that.
- LC: How did the students react?
- INT_2: Oh, they found it very funny.
- LC: Ok. So, they welcomed different cultures, different ways of looking at a topic such as food, right?
- INT_2: Yes.
- LC: Ok, very good. Is there anything else that you like to add on?
- INT_2: Well, I also had the experience with Bollywood, for example, which was, students also welcomed very well. There are so many..
- LC: Hum, hum.
- INT_2: this "obentos", Bollywood.. I think that everything that we can bring to the classroom and nowadays.. it's even better if the things are far away from our culture
- LC: Exotic, you would say.
- INT_2: exotic, yeah, because kids now they are surrounded by everything about information, information comes from everywhere and so.. I think is also interesting to know what's going on in the other side of the world.

Appendix 6

SURVEY ANALYSIS: TABLES

Table 1: Trainees' response (yes/ no) to having spent time in a foreign country – frequency and percentage (Q8)

1 st year					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	42	68.9	68.9	68.9
	No	19	31.1	31.1	100.0
	Total	61	100.0	100.0	
2 nd year					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	31	64.6	64.6	64.6
	No	17	35.4	35.4	100.0
	Total	48	100.0	100.0	

Table 2: Situations trainees use English – frequency and percentage (Q12)

	1 st year		2 nd year	
	N	%	N	%
Work	44	72.1%	45	93.8%
No answer	17	27.9%	3	6.3%
Total	61	100.0%	48	100.0%
Traveling	43	70.5%	28	58.3%
No answer	18	29.5%	20	41.7%
Total	61	100.0%	48	100.0%
No answer	41	67.2%	28	58.3%
friends/family	20	32.8%	20	41.7%
Total	61	100.0%	48	100.0%
Social networking/ chatting	55	90.2%	42	87.5%
No answer	6	9.8%	6	12.5%
Total	61	100.0%	48	100.0%
Computer	35	57.4%	26	54.2%
No answer	26	42.6%	22	45.8%
Total	61	100.0%	48	100.0%
No answer	55	90.2%	46	95.8%
Other	6	9.8%	2	4.2%
Total	61	100.0%	48	100.0%

Table 3: Trainees' description of the English they use – frequency and percentage (Q13)

1st year				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid AmE	12	19.7	19.7	19.7
BrE	13	21.3	21.3	41.0
BrE and AmE	28	45.9	45.9	86.9
Mixture of BrE/AmE w/ Portuguese influence	6	9.8	9.8	96.7
Other	2	3.3	3.3	100.0
Total	61	100.0	100.0	
2nd year				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid AmE	6	12.5	12.5	12.5
BrE	13	27.1	27.1	39.6
BrE and AmE	23	47.9	47.9	87.5
Mixture of BrE/AmE w/ Portuguese influence	5	10.4	10.4	97.9
Other	1	2.1	2.1	100.0
Total	48	100.0	100.0	

Table 4: Familiarity with varieties of English – percentage (Q17)

	1st year		2nd year	
	N	%	N	%
AmE	59	96.7%	46	95.8%
No answer	2	3.3%	2	4.2%
Total	61	100.0%	48	100.0%
BrE	58	95.1%	48	100.0%
No answer	3	4.9%	0	0.0%
Total	61	100.0%	48	100.0%
No answer	43	70.5%	25	52.1%
L1 varieties	18	29.5%	23	47.9%
Total	61	100.0%	48	100.0%
No answer	54	88.5%	42	87.5%
L2 varieties	7	11.5%	6	12.5%
Total	61	100.0%	48	100.0%
NNSs with mother tongue accent	46	75.4%	31	64.6%
No answer	15	24.6%	17	35.4%
Total	61	100.0%	48	100.0%

Table 5: Frequency with whom English is usually spoken – frequency and percentage (Q14)

1 st year					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	NSs	19	31.1	31.1	31.1
	NNSs	42	68.9	68.9	100.0
	Total	61	100.0	100.0	
2 nd year					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	NSs	7	14.6	14.6	14.6
	NNSs	41	85.4	85.4	100.0
	Total	48	100.0	100.0	

Table 6: Ownership of English – frequency and percentage (Q15)

1 st year					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Only its NSs	1	1.6	1.6	1.6
	Whoever uses it	60	98.4	98.4	100.0
	Total	61	100.0	100.0	
2 nd year					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Whoever uses it	48	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 7: Definition for English – frequency and percentage (Q16)

1 st year					
	<i>English is...</i>	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	The language spoken in Anglophone countries	1	1.6	1.6	1.6
	The language used in international communication	60	98.4	98.4	100.0
	Total	61	100.0	100.0	
2 nd year					
	<i>English is...</i>	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	The language spoken in Anglophone countries	2	4.2	4.2	4.2
	The language used in international communication	46	95.8	95.8	100.0
	Total	48	100.0	100.0	

Table 8: Students' goals when learning English (Q 18)

		1 st year		2 nd year	
		N	%	N	%
18.1. Write personal documents (e.g. emails. letters)	Strongly Agree	5	8.6%	7	14.6%
	Agree	27	46.6%	22	45.8%
	Undecided	17	29.3%	13	27.1%
	Disagree	8	13.8%	5	10.4%
	Strongly disagree	1	1.7%	1	2.1%
	Total	58	100.0%	48	100.0%
18.2. Write professional documents (e.g. emails. reports)	Strongly Agree	4	7.0%	7	14.6%
	Agree	40	70.2%	26	54.2%
	Undecided	10	17.5%	9	18.8%
	Disagree	3	5.3%	5	10.4%
	Strongly disagree	0	0%	1	2.1%
	Total	57	100.0%	48	100.0%
18.3. Chat with friends online or for social networking	Strongly Agree	10	16.9%	11	22.9%
	Agree	29	49.2%	24	50.0%
	Undecided	13	22.0%	8	16.7%
	Disagree	7	11.9%	4	8.3%
	Strongly disagree	0	0%	1	2.1%
	Total	59	100.0%	48	100.0%
18.4. Read for personal reasons (e.g. books. magazines)	Strongly Agree	8	13.3%	2	4.3%
	Agree	29	48.3%	21	44.7%
	Undecided	13	21.7%	14	29.8%
	Disagree	8	13.3%	9	19.1%
	Strongly disagree	2	3.3%	1	2.1%
	Total	60	100.0%	47	100.0%
18.5. Read for professional reasons (e.g. textbooks. reports)	Strongly Agree	14	23.7%	5	10.4%
	Agree	37	62.7%	32	66.7%
	Undecided	5	8.5%	7	14.6%
	Disagree	3	5.1%	3	6.3%
	Strongly disagree	0	0%	1	2.1%
	Total	59	100.0%	48	100.0%
18.6. Read internet sites	Strongly Agree	12	19.7%	17	35.4%
	Agree	34	55.7%	27	56.3%
	Undecided	12	19.7%	2	4.2%
	Disagree	3	4.9%	0	.0%
	Strongly disagree	0	0%	2	4.2%
	Total	61	100.0%	48	100.0%
18.7. Mainly speak with NSs	Strongly Agree	12	20.3%	5	10.9%
	Agree	23	39.0%	20	43.5%
	Undecided	17	28.8%	11	23.9%
	Disagree	6	10.2%	6	13.0%
	Strongly disagree	1	1.7%	4	8.7%
	Total	59	100.0%	46	100.0%
18.8. Mainly speak with NNSs	Strongly Agree	8	13.3%	5	10.9%
	Agree	25	41.7%	22	47.8%
	Undecided	19	31.7%	8	17.4%
	Disagree	6	10.0%	6	13.0%
	Strongly disagree	2	3.3%	5	10.9%
	Total	60	100.0%	46	100.0%
18.9. Communicate when in English- speaking countries	Strongly Agree	32	52.5%	15	32.6%
	Agree	25	41.0%	23	50.0%
	Undecided	1	1.6%	6	13.0%
	Disagree	1	1.6%	1	2.2%
	Strongly disagree	2	3.3%	1	2.2%
	Total	61	100.0%	46	100.0%

18.10. Communicate in international situations	Strongly Agree	36	60.0%	20	42.6%
	Agree	20	33.3%	22	46.8%
	Undecided	0	0%	4	8.5%
	Disagree	3	5.0%	0	.0%
	Strongly disagree	1	1.7%	1	2.1%
	Total	60	100.0%	47	100.0%
18.11. Listen to music	Strongly Agree	11	18.0%	10	20.8%
	Agree	26	42.6%	24	50.0%
	Undecided	15	24.6%	6	12.5%
	Disagree	8	13.1%	7	14.6%
	Strongly disagree	1	1.6%	1	2.1%
	Total	61	100.0%	48	100.0%
18.12. Watch television shows or films without subtitles	Strongly Agree	8	13.1%	7	14.6%
	Agree	29	47.5%	24	50.0%
	Undecided	16	26.2%	9	18.8%
	Disagree	7	11.5%	6	12.5%
	Strongly disagree	1	1.6%	2	4.2%
	Total	61	100.0%	48	100.0%
18.3. Have more job perspectives	Strongly Agree	39	63.9%	31	66.0%
	Agree	18	29.5%	11	23.4%
	Undecided	2	3.3%	3	6.4%
	Disagree	0	0%	1	2.1%
	Strongly disagree	2	3.3%	1	2.1%
	Total	61	100.0%	47	100.0%
18.14. Go study / work in an English-speaking country	Strongly Agree	27	45.0%	21	44.7%
	Agree	20	33.3%	17	36.2%
	Undecided	6	10.0%	8	17.0%
	Disagree	5	8.3%	1	2.1%
	Strongly disagree	2	3.3%	0	.0%
	Total	60	100.0%	47	100.0%
18.15. Become familiar with the people / culture of English-speaking countries	Strongly Agree	9	15.5%	3	6.4%
	Agree	31	53.4%	25	53.2%
	Undecided	12	20.7%	13	27.7%
	Disagree	5	8.6%	5	10.6%
	Strongly disagree	1	1.7%	1	2.1%
	Total	58	100.0%	47	100.0%

**Table 9: Crosstabulation –
ELT experience with studying/ working
in an English-speaking country
(1st and 2nd year)**

18.14. Study/ work in English-speaking country													
		1 st year						2 nd year					
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Total	
10. ELT experience	None	N	11	7	2	1	0	21	11	5	2	0	18
		% in Q10	52.4%	33.3%	9.5%	4.8%	0.0%	100.0%	61.1%	27.8%	11.1%	0.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	18.3%	11.7%	3.3%	1.7%	0.0%	35.0%	23.4%	10.6%	4.3%	0.0%	38.3%
	1-5 years	N	11	9	2	2	2	26	5	5	3	0	13
		% in Q10	42.3%	34.6%	7.7%	7.7%	7.7%	100.0%	38.5%	38.5%	23.1%	0.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	18.3%	15.0%	3.3%	3.3%	3.3%	43.3%	10.6%	10.6%	6.4%	0.0%	27.7%
6-10 years	N	3	3	2	2	0	10	5	3	2	1	11	
	% in Q10	30.0%	30.0%	20.0%	20.0%	0.0%	100.0%	45.5%	27.3%	18.2%	9.1%	100.0%	
	% of Total	5.0%	5.0%	3.3%	3.3%	0.0%	16.7%	10.6%	6.4%	4.3%	2.1%	23.4%	
11+ years	N	2	1	0	0	0	3	0	4	1	0	5	
	% in Q10	75.0%	25.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	75.0%	25.0%	0.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	3.4%	1.7%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	5.1%	0.0%	8.5%	2.1%	0.0%	10.6%	
Total	N	27	20	6	5	2	60	21	17	8	1	47	
	% in Q10	45.0%	33.3%	10.0%	8.3%	3.3%	100.0%	44.7%	36.2%	17.0%	2.1%	100.0%	
	% of Total	45.0%	33.3%	10.0%	8.3%	3.3%	100.0%	44.7%	36.2%	17.0%	2.1%	100.0%	

**Table 10: Crosstabulation –
ELT experience with
mainly speaking with NSs
(1st and 2nd year)**

18.7. Mainly speak with NSs														
		1 st year						2 nd year						
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	
10. ELT experience	None	N	7	7	5	1	0	20	2	9	5	1	1	18
		% in Q10	35.0%	35.0%	25.0%	5.0%	0.0%	100.0%	11.1%	50.0%	27.8%	5.6%	100.0%	
		% of Total	11.9%	11.9%	8.5%	1.7%	0.0%	33.9%	4.3%	19.6%	10.9%	2.2%	39.2%	
	1-5 years	N	3	13	6	4	0	26	1	5	4	2	0	12
		% in Q10	11.5%	50.0%	23.1%	15.4%	0.0%	100.0%	8.3%	41.7%	33.3%	16.7%	0.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	5.1%	22.0%	10.2%	6.8%	0.0%	44.1%	2.2%	10.9%	8.7%	4.3%	0.0%	26.1%
	6-10 years	N	1	3	5	1	0	10	1	4	1	2	2	10
		% in Q10	10.0%	30.0%	50.0%	10.0%	0.0%	100.0%	10.0%	40.0%	10.0%	20.0%	20.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	1.7%	5.1%	8.5%	1.7%	0.0%	16.9%	2.2%	8.7%	2.2%	4.3%	4.3%	21.7%
	11+ years	N	1	0	1	0	1	2	1	2	1	1	1	4
% in Q10		50.0%	0.0%	25.0%	0.0%	25.0%	100.0%	25.0%	37.5%	12.5%	12.5%	12.5%	100.0%	
% of Total		1.7%	0.0%	1.7%	0.0%	1.7%	5.1%	2.2%	4.4%	2.2%	2.2%	2.2%	13.2%	
Total		N	12	23	17	6	1	59	5	20	11	6	4	46
		% in Q10	20.3%	39.0%	28.8%	10.2%	1.7%	100.0%	10.9%	43.5%	23.9%	13.0%	8.7%	100.0%
		% of Total	20.3%	39.0%	28.8%	10.2%	1.7%	100.0%	10.9%	43.5%	23.9%	13.0%	8.7%	100.0%

**Table 11: Crosstabulation –
ELT experience with
mainly speaking with NNSs
(1st and 2nd year)**

18.8. Mainly speak with NNSs														
		1 st year					2 nd year					Total		
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree		Strongly disagree	
10. ELT experience	None	N	2	9	7	2	1	21	1	10	6	0	1	18
		% in Q10	9.5%	42.9%	33.3%	9.5%	4.8%	100.0%	5.6%	55.6%	33.3%	0.0%	5.6%	100.0%
		% of Total	3.3%	15.0%	11.7%	3.3%	1.7%	35.0%	2.2%	21.7%	13.0%	0.0%	2.2%	39.1%
	1-5 years	N	5	12	8	1	0	26	1	7	1	2	1	12
		% in Q10	19.2%	46.2%	30.8%	3.8%	0.0%	100.0%	8.3%	58.3%	8.3%	16.7%	8.3%	100.0%
	6-10 years	% of Total	8.3%	20.0%	13.3%	1.7%	0.0%	43.3%	2.2%	15.2%	2.2%	4.3%	2.2%	26.1%
		N	1	1	4	3	1	10	2	3	1	3	3	12
	11+ years	% in Q10	10.0%	10.0%	40.0%	30.0%	10.0%	100.0%	20.0%	30.0%	10.0%	20.0%	20.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	1.7%	1.7%	6.7%	5.0%	1.7%	16.7%	4.3%	6.5%	2.2%	4.3%	4.3%	21.7%
	Total	N	0	3	0	0	0	3	1	2	0	2	1	6
% in Q10			0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	12.5%	25.0%	0.0%	37.5.0%	25.0%	100.0%
% of Total			0.0%	5.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	5%	2.2%	4.3%	0.0%	4.4%	2.2%	13.1%
N		8	25	19	6	2	60	5	22	8	6	5	46	
		% in Q10	13.3%	41.7%	31.7%	10.0%	3.3%	100.0%	10.9%	47.8%	17.4%	13.0%	10.9%	100.0%
		% of Total	13.3%	41.7%	31.7%	10.0%	3.3%	100.0%	10.9%	47.8%	17.4%	13.0%	10.9%	100.0%

**Table 12: Crosstabulation –
ELT experience with communication
in international situations
(1st and 2nd year)**

18.10. Communicate in international situations												
		1 st year					2 nd year					
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Strongly disagree	Total	
10. ELT experience	None	N	13	7	1	0	21	8	9	1	0	18
		% in Q10	61.9%	33.3%	4.8%	0.0%	100.0%	44.4%	50.0%	5.6%	0.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	21.7%	11.7%	1.7%	0.0%	35.0%	17.0%	19.1%	2.1%	0.0%	38.3%
	1-5 years	N	16	7	2	1	26	7	3	1	1	12
		% in Q10	61.5%	26.9%	7.7%	3.8%	100.0%	58.3%	25.0%	8.3%	8.3%	100.0%
		% of Total	26.7%	11.7%	3.3%	1.7%	43.3%	14.9%	6.4%	2.1%	2.1%	25.5%
	6-10 years	N	6	4	0	0	10	5	4	2	0	11
		% in Q10	60.0%	40.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	45.5%	36.4%	18.2%	0.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	10.0%	6.7%	0.0%	0.0%	16.7%	10.6%	8.5%	4.3%	0.0%	23.4%
	11+ years	N	1	2	0	0	3	0	6	0	0	6
% in Q10		50.0%	50.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	
% of Total		1.7%	3.3%	0.0%	0.0%	5.0%	0.0%	12.8%	0.0%	0.0%	12.8%	
Total	N	36	20	3	1	60	20	22	4	1	47	
	% in Q10	60.0%	33.3%	5.0%	1.7%	100.0%	42.6%	46.8%	8.5%	2.1%	100.0%	
	% of Total	60.0%	33.3%	5.0%	1.7%	100.0%	42.6%	46.8%	8.5%	2.1%	100.0%	

**Table 13: Crosstabulation –
ELT experience with listening to music
(1st and 2nd year)**

18.11. Listen to music														
		1 st year					2 nd year							
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	
10. ELT experience	None	N	4	6	7	4	0	21	4	9	1	4	0	18
		% in Q10	19.0%	28.6%	33.3%	19.0%	0.0%	100.0%	22.2%	50.0%	5.6%	22.2%	0.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	6.6%	9.8%	11.5%	6.6%	0.0%	34.4%	8.3%	18.8%	2.1%	8.3%	0.0%	37.5%
	1-5 years	N	3	13	7	4	0	27	2	6	4	1	0	13
		% in Q10	11.1%	48.1%	25.9%	14.8%	0.0%	100.0%	15.4%	46.2%	30.8%	7.7%	0.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	4.9%	21.3%	11.5%	6.6%	0.0%	44.3%	4.2%	12.5%	8.3%	2.1%	0.0%	27.1%
	6-10 years	N	3	5	1	0	1	10	3	4	1	2	1	11
		% in Q10	30.0%	50.0%	10.0%	0.0%	10.0%	100.0%	27.3%	36.4%	9.1%	18.2%	9.1%	100.0%
		% of Total	4.9%	8.2%	1.6%	0.0%	1.6%	16.4%	6.3%	8.3%	2.1%	4.2%	2.1%	22.8%
	11+ years	N	1	2	0	0	0	3	1	5	0	0	0	6
% in Q10		50.0%	50.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	12.5.0%	87.5%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	
% of Total		1.6%	3.3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	4.9%	2.1%	10.5%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	12.6%	
Total	N	11	26	15	8	1	61	10	24	6	7	1	48	
	% in Q10	18.0%	42.6%	24.6%	13.1%	1.6%	100.0%	20.8%	50.0%	12.5%	14.6%	2.1%	100.0%	
	% of Total	18.0%	42.6%	24.6%	13.1%	1.6%	100.0%	20.8%	50.0%	12.5%	14.6%	2.1%	100.0%	

**Table 14: Crosstabulation – ELT
experience with more job perspectives
(1st and 2nd year)**

18.13. Have more job perspectives												
		1 st year					2 nd year					
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
10. ELT experience	None	13	7	1	0	21	13	3	2	0	0	18
	% in Q10	61.9%	33.3%	4.8%	0.0%	100.0%	72.2%	16.7%	11.1%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	21.3%	11.5%	1.6%	0.0%	34.4%	27.7%	6.4%	4.3%	0.0%	0.0%	38.3%
	1-5 years	18	6	1	2	27	10	1	1	0	1	13
	% in Q10	66.7%	22.2%	3.7%	7.4%	100.0%	76.9%	7.7%	7.7%	0.0%	7.7%	100.0%
6-10 years	% of Total	29.5%	9.8%	1.6%	3.3%	44.3%	21.3%	2.1%	2.1%	0.0%	2.1%	27.7%
	N	5	5	0	0	10	7	3	0	1	0	11
	% in Q10	50.0%	50.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	63.6%	27.3%	0.0%	9.1%	0.0%	100.0%
	% do Total	8.2%	8.2%	0.0%	0.0%	16.4%	14.9%	6.4%	0.0%	2.1%	0.0%	23.4%
	11+ years	3	0	0	0	3	1	4	0	0	0	3
Total	% in Q10	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	25.0%	75.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	34.9%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	4.9%	2.1%	8.5%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	10.6%
	N	39	18	2	2	61	31	11	3	1	1	47
	% in Q10	63.9%	29.5%	3.3%	3.3%	100.0%	66.0%	23.4%	6.4%	2.1%	2.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	63.9%	29.5%	3.3%	3.3%	100.0%	66.0%	23.4%	6.4%	2.1%	2.1%	100.0%

Table 15: Crosstabulation – Experience abroad with teachers’ role in students’ use of English varieties (consistency, mixing & other) (1st and 2nd year)

19. When teaching English, teachers should stress to students that they ...										
			1 st year				2 nd year			
			Be consistent in one standard variety	Can mix different varieties	Other	Total	Be consistent in one standard variety	Can mix different varieties	Other	Total
8. Experience abroad	Yes	N	26	12	4	42	12	17	2	31
		% in Q8	61.9%	28.6%	9.5%	100.0%	38.7%	54.8%	6.5%	100.0%
		% of Total	42.6%	19.7%	6.6%	68.9%	25.0%	35.4%	4.2%	64.6%
	No	N	12	6	1	19	9	8	0	17
		% in Q8	63.2%	31.6%	5.3%	100.0%	52.9%	47.1%	0.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	19.7%	9.8%	1.6%	31.1%	18.8%	16.7%	0.0%	35.4%
Total		N	38	18	5	61	21	25	2	48
		% in Q8	62.3%	29.5%	8.2%	100.0%	43.8%	52.1%	4.2%	100.0%
		% of Total	62.3%	29.5%	8.2%	100.0%	43.8%	52.1%	4.2%	100.0%

Table 16: Crosstabulation – ELT experience with teachers’ role in students’ use of English varieties (consistency, mixing & other) (1st and 2nd year)

19. When teaching English, teachers should stress to students that they ...										
			1 st year				2 nd year			
			Be consistent in one standard variety	Can mix different varieties	Other	Total	Be consistent in one standard variety	Can mix different varieties	Other	Total
10. ELT experience	None	N	17	4	0	21	11	6	1	18
		% in Q10	81.0%	19.0%	0.0%	100.0%	61.1%	33.3%	5.6%	100.0%
		% of Total	27.9%	6.6%	0.0%	34.4%	22.9%	12.5%	2.1%	37.5%
	1-5 years	N	15	8	4	27	5	8	0	13
		% in Q10	55.6%	29.6%	14.8%	100.0%	38.5%	61.5%	0.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	24.6%	13.1%	6.6%	44.3%	10.4%	16.7%	0.0%	27.1%
	6-10 years	N	5	5	0	10	4	7	0	11
		% in Q10	50.0%	50.0%	0.0%	100.0%	36.4%	63.6%	0.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	8.2%	8.2%	0.0%	16.4%	8.3%	14.6%	0.0%	22.9%
	11+ years	N	1	1	1	3	1	4	1	6
		% in Q10	25.0%	25.0%	50.0%	100.0%	25.0%	50.0%	25.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	1.6%	1.6%	1.6%	4.9%	2.1%	8.3%	2.1%	12.5%
Total		N	38	18	5	61	21	25	2	38
		% in Q10	62.3%	29.5%	8.2%	100.0%	43.8%	52.1%	4.2%	100.0%
		% of Total	62.3%	29.5%	8.2%	100.0%	43.8%	52.1%	4.2%	100.0%

Table 17: Crosstabulation – Experience abroad with the importance of AmE in ELT (1st and 2nd year)

21.1. AmE											
				1 st year				2 nd year			
				Very important	Important	Neutral	Total	Very important	Important	Neutral	Unimportant
8. Experience abroad	Yes	N	22	19	1	42	20	8	1	2	31
		% in Q8	52.4%	45.2%	2.4%	100.0%	64.5%	25.8%	3.2%	6.5%	100.0%
		% of Total	36.1%	31.1%	1.6%	68.9%	41.7%	16.7%	2.1%	4.2%	64.6%
	No	N	11	7	1	19	9	8	0	0	17
% in Q8		57.9%	36.8%	5.3%	100.0%	52.9%	47.1%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	
% of Total		18.0%	11.5%	1.6%	31.1%	18.8%	16.7%	0.0%	0.0%	35.4%	
Total		N	33	26	2	61	29	16	1	2	48
		% in Q8	54.1%	42.6%	3.3%	100.0%	60.4%	33.3%	2.1%	4.2%	100.0%
		% of Total	54.1%	42.6%	3.3%	100.0%	60.4%	33.3%	2.1%	4.2%	100.0%

Table 18: Crosstabulation – Experience abroad with the importance of BrE in ELT (1st and 2nd year)

21.2. BrE									
				1 st year			2 nd year		
				Very important	Important	Total	Very important	Important	Unimportant
8. Experience abroad	Yes	N	35	7	42	26	4	1	31
		% in Q8	83.3%	16.7%	100.0%	83.9%	12.9%	3.2%	100.0%
		% of Total	57.4%	11.5%	68.9%	54.2%	8.3%	2.1%	64.6%
	No	N	12	7	19	14	3	0	17
		% in Q8	63.2%	36.8%	100.0%	82.4%	17.6%	0.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	19.7%	11.5%	31.1%	29.2%	6.3%	0.0%	35.4%
Total			47	14	61	40	7	1	48
		% in Q8	77.0%	23.0%	100.0%	83.3%	14.6%	2.1%	100.0%
		% of Total	77.0%	23.0%	100.0%	83.3%	14.6%	2.1%	100.0%

**Table 19: Crosstabulation –
Experience abroad with
the importance of other native
varieties in ELT (1st and 2nd year)**

21.3. Other native varieties														
				1 st year					2 nd year					
				Very important	Important	Neutral	Unimportant	Very unimportant	Total	Very important	Important	Neutral	Unimportant	Very unimportant
8. Experience abroad	Yes	N	5	11	22	2	1	41	7	17	3	2	1	30
		% in Q8	12.2%	26.8%	53.7%	4.9%	2.4%	100.0%	23.3%	56.7%	10.0%	6.7%	3.3%	100.0%
		% of Total	8.8%	19.3%	38.6%	3.5%	1.8%	71.9%	14.9%	36.2%	6.4%	4.3%	2.1%	63.8%
	No	N	0	3	13	0	0	16	0	4	12	1	0	17
		% in Q8	0.0%	18.8%	81.3%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	23.5%	70.6%	5.9%	0.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	0.0%	5.3%	22.8%	0.0%	0.0%	28.1%	0.0%	8.5%	25.5%	2.1%	0.0%	36.2%
Total	N		5	14	35	2	1	57	7	21	15	3	1	47
		% in Q8	8.8%	24.6%	61.4%	3.5%	1.8%	100.0%	14.9%	44.7%	31.9%	6.4%	2.1%	100.0%
		% of Total	8.8%	24.6%	61.4%	3.5%	1.8%	100.0%	14.9%	44.7%	31.9%	6.4%	2.1%	100.0%

**Table 20: Crosstabulation –
Experience abroad with
L2 varieties in ELT
(1st and 2nd year)**

21.4. L2 varieties														
			1 st year						2 nd year					
			Very important	Important	Neutral	Unimportant	Very unimportant	Total	Very important	Important	Neutral	Unimportant	Very unimportant	Total
8. Experience abroad	Yes	N	3	3	23	11	1	41	5	8	12	5	1	31
		% in Q8	7.3%	7.3%	56.1%	26.8%	2.4%	100.0%	16.1%	25.8%	38.7%	16.1%	3.2%	100.0%
	No	% of Total	5.2%	5.2%	39.7%	19.0%	1.7%	70.7%	10.4%	16.7%	25.0%	10.4%	2.1%	64.6%
		N	0	1	8	6	2	17	0	1	9	6	1	17
Total		% in Q8	0.0%	5.9%	47.1%	35.3%	11.8%	100.0%	0.0%	5.9%	52.9%	35.3%	5.9%	100.0%
		% of Total	0.0%	1.7%	13.8%	10.3%	3.4%	29.3%	0.0%	2.1%	18.8%	12.5%	2.1%	35.4%
		N	3	4	31	17	3	58	5	9	21	11	2	48
		% in Q8	5.2%	6.9%	53.4%	29.3%	5.2%	100.0%	10.4%	18.8%	43.8%	22.9%	4.2%	100.0%
	% of Total		5.2%	6.9%	53.4%	29.3%	5.2%	100.0%	10.4%	18.8%	43.8%	22.9%	4.2%	100.0%

Table 21: Crosstabulation – Experience abroad with a neutral variety of English not associated with a specific country in ELT (1st and 2nd year)

21.5. Neutral variety of English not associated with a specific country											
		1 st year					2 nd year				
		Very important	Important	Neutral	Unimportant	Very unimportant	Total	Very important	Important	Neutral	Total
8. Experience abroad	Yes										
	N	6	7	22	7	0	42	7	11	10	31
	% in Q8	14.3%	16.7%	52.4%	16.7%	0.0%	100.0%	22.6%	35.5%	32.3%	100.0%
	% of Total	10.3%	12.1%	37.9%	12.1%	0.0%	72.4%	14.6%	22.9%	20.8%	64.6%
Total	No	0	2	9	4	1	16	2	6	8	17
	N	0.0%	12.5%	56.3%	25.0%	6.3%	100.0%	11.8%	35.3%	47.1%	100.0%
	% in Q8	0.0%	3.4%	15.5%	6.9%	1.7%	27.6%	4.2%	12.5%	16.7%	35.4%
	% of Total	0.0%	3.4%	15.5%	6.9%	1.7%	27.6%	4.2%	12.5%	16.7%	35.4%
Total	N	6	9	31	11	1	58	9	17	18	48
	% in Q8	10.3%	15.5%	53.4%	19.0%	1.7%	100.0%	18.8%	35.4%	37.5%	100.0%
	% of Total	10.3%	15.5%	53.4%	19.0%	1.7%	100.0%	18.8%	35.4%	37.5%	100.0%
	% of Total	10.3%	15.5%	53.4%	19.0%	1.7%	100.0%	18.8%	35.4%	37.5%	100.0%

Table 22: Crosstabulation – ELT experience with the importance of AmE in ELT (1st and 2nd year)

21.1. AmE											
		1 st year					2 nd year				
		Very important	Important	Neutral	Total	Very important	Important	Neutral	Unimportant	Total	
10. ELT experience	None	N	10	9	2	21	9	7	1	1	18
		% in Q10	47.6%	42.9%	9.5%	100.0%	50.0%	38.9%	5.6%	5.6%	100.0%
		% of Total	16.4%	14.8%	3.3%	34.4%	18.8%	14.6%	2.1%	2.1%	37.5%
	1-5 years	N	14	13	0	27	9	4	0	0	13
		% in Q10	51.9%	48.1%	0.0%	100.0%	69.2%	30.8%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	23.0%	21.3%	0.0%	44.3%	18.8%	8.3%	0.0%	0.0%	27.1%
	6-10 years	N	7	3	0	10	7	3	0	1	11
		% in Q10	70.0%	30.0%	0.0%	100.0%	63.6%	27.3%	0.0%	9.1%	100.0%
		% of Total	11.5%	4.9%	0.0%	16.4%	14.6%	6.3%	0.0%	2.1%	22.9%
	11+ years	N	2	1	0	3	4	2	0	0	6
		% in Q10	75.0%	25.0%	0.0%	100.0%	62.5%	37.5%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	3.2%	1.6%	0.0%	4.9%	6.3%	2.1%	0.0%	0.0%	12.5%
Total	N	33	26	2	61	29	16	1	2	48	
	% in Q10	54.1%	42.6%	3.3%	100.0%	60.4%	33.3%	2.1%	4.2%	100.0%	
	% of Total	54.1%	42.6%	3.3%	100.0%	60.4%	33.3%	2.1%	4.2%	100.0%	

**Table 23: Crosstabulation –
ELT experience with
the importance of BrE in ELT
(1st and 2nd year)**

21.2. BrE										
		1 st year				2 nd year				
		Very important	Important	Total	Very important	Important	Unimportant	Total		
10. ELT experience	None	N	15	6	21	15	2	1	18	
		% in Q10	71.4%	28.6%	100.0%	83.3%	11.1%	5.6%	100.0%	
		% of Total	24.6%	9.8%	34.4%	31.3%	4.2%	2.1%	37.5%	
	1-5 years	N	22	5	27	12	1	0	13	
		% in Q10	81.5%	18.5%	100.0%	92.3%	7.7%	0.0%	100.0%	
		% of Total	36.1%	8.2%	44.3%	25.0%	2.1%	0.0%	27.1%	
	6-10 years	N	7	3	10	8	3	0	11	
		% in Q10	70.0%	30.0%	100.0%	72.7%	27.3%	0.0%	100.0%	
		% of Total	11.5%	4.9%	16.4%	16.7%	6.3%	0.0%	22.9%	
	11+ years	N	3	0	3	5	1	0	6	
		% in Q10	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	87.5%	12.5%	0.0%	100.0%	
		% of Total	4.9%	0.0%	4.9%	6.3%	2.1%	0.0%	12.5%	
	Total	N	47	14	61	40	7	1	48	
		% in Q10	77.0%	23.0%	100.0%	83.3%	14.6%	2.1%	100.0%	
% of Total		77.0%	23.0%	100.0%	83.3%	14.6%	2.1%	100.0%		

**Table 24: Crosstabulation –
ELT experience with the importance
of other native varieties in ELT
(1st and 2nd year)**

21.3. Other native varieties														
					1 st year					2 nd year				
					Very important	Important	Neutral	Unimportant	Very unimportant	Total	Very important	Important	Neutral	Unimportant
10. ELT experience	None	N	1	4	14	0	0	19	1	8	8	1	0	18
		% in Q10	5.3%	21.1%	73.7%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	5.6%	44.4%	44.4%	5.6%	0.0%	100.0%
	1-5 years	% of Total	1.8%	7.0%	24.6%	0.0%	0.0%	33.3%	2.1%	17.0%	17.0%	2.1%	0.0%	38.2%
		N	2	6	15	1	1	25	3	6	3	0	1	13
	6-10 years	% in Q10	8.0%	24.0%	60.0%	4.0%	4.0%	100.0%	23.1%	46.2%	23.1%	0.0%	7.7%	100.0%
		% of Total	3.5%	10.5%	26.3%	1.8%	1.8%	43.9%	6.4%	12.8%	6.4%	0.0%	2.1%	27.7%
Total	11+ years	N	1	2	6	1	0	10	1	6	2	1	0	10
		% in Q10	10.0%	20.0%	60.0%	10.0%	0.0%	100.0%	10.0%	60.0%	20.0%	10.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	11+ years	% of Total	1.8%	3.5%	10.5%	1.8%	0.0%	17.5%	2.1%	12.8%	4.3%	2.1%	0.0%	21.3%
		N	1	2	0	0	0	2	2	1	2	1	0	6
Total	11+ years	% in Q10	50.0%	50.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	37.5%	12.5%	37.5%	12.5%	0.0%	100.0%	
		% of Total	1.8%	3.5%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	5.3%	4.2%	2.1%	4.2%	2.1%	0.0%	12.8%
	Total	N	5	14	35	2	1	57	7	21	15	3	1	47
		% in Q10	8.8%	24.6%	61.4%	3.5%	1.8%	100.0%	14.9%	44.7%	31.9%	6.4%	2.1%	100.0%
Total	Total	% of Total	8.8%	24.6%	61.4%	3.5%	1.8%	100.0%	14.9%	44.7%	31.9%	6.4%	2.1%	100.0%

**Table 25: Crosstabulation –
ELT experience with
L2 varieties in ELT
(1st and 2nd year)**

21.4. L2 varieties												
1 st year						2 nd year						
	Very important	Important	Neutral	Unimportant	Very unimportant	Total	Very important	Important	Neutral	Unimportant	Very unimportant	Total
10. ELT experience	None	N	0	1	7	11	1	20	3	7	7	18
	% in Q10		0.0%	5.0%	35.0%	55.0%	100.0%		16.7%	38.9%	38.9%	100.0%
	% of Total		0.0%	1.7%	12.1%	19.0%	34.5%		6.3%	14.6%	14.6%	37.5%
	1-5 years	N	1	2	16	4	2	25	4	4	2	13
	% in Q10		4.0%	8.0%	64.0%	16.0%	100.0%		30.8%	30.8%	15.4%	100.0%
6-10 years	% of Total		1.7%	3.4%	27.6%	6.9%	43.1%		8.3%	8.3%	4.2%	27.1%
	N		1	0	7	2	0	10	2	8	1	11
	% in Q10		10.0%	0.0%	70.0%	20.0%	100.0%		18.2%	72.7%	9.1%	100.0%
11+ years	% of Total		1.7%	0.0%	12.1%	3.4%	17.2%		4.2%	16.7%	2.1%	22.9%
	N		1	1	1	0	3	2	0	2	1	6
	% in Q10		50.0%	25.0%	25.0%	0.0%	100.0%		0.0%	25.0%	12.5%	100.0%
Total	% of Total		1.7%	1.7%	1.7%	0.0%	5.1%		0.0%	4.2%	2.1%	12.5%
	N		3	4	31	17	58	5	9	21	11	48
	% in Q10		5.2%	6.9%	53.4%	29.3%	100.0%		18.8%	43.8%	22.9%	100.0%
	% of Total		5.2%	6.9%	53.4%	29.3%	100.0%		18.8%	43.8%	22.9%	100.0%

**Table 26: Crosstabulation –
ELT experience with a neutral
variety of English not associated
with a specific country in ELT
(1st and 2nd year)**

21.5. Neutral variety of English not associated with a specific country												
1 st year						2 nd year						
	Very important	Important	Neutral	Unimportant	Very unimportant	Total	Very important	Important	Neutral	Unimportant	Total	
10. ELT experience	None	N	2	4	9	0	21	3	6	7	2	18
	% in Q10		9.5%	19.0%	42.9%	0.0%	100.0%	16.7%	33.3%	38.9%	11.1%	100.0%
	% of Total		3.4%	6.9%	15.5%	0.0%	36.2%	6.3%	12.5%	14.6%	4.2%	37.5%
	1-5 years	N	2	5	16	1	25	2	7	2	2	13
	% in Q10		8.0%	20.0%	64.0%	4.0%	100.0%	15.4%	53.8%	15.4%	15.4%	100.0%
	% of Total		3.4%	8.6%	27.6%	1.7%	43.1%	4.2%	14.6%	4.2%	4.2%	27.1%
	6-10 years	N	1	0	6	2	9	2	2	7	0	11
	% in Q10		11.1%	0.0%	66.7%	0.0%	100.0%	18.2%	18.2%	63.6%	0.0%	100.0%
	% of Total		1.7%	0.0%	10.3%	0.0%	15.5%	4.2%	4.2%	14.6%	0.0%	22.9%
	11+ years	N	1	0	0	2	2	2	2	2	0	6
% in Q10		50.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	37.5%	37.5%	25.0%	0.0%	100.0%	
% of Total		1.7%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	5.1%	4.2%	4.2%	4.2%	0.0%	12.5%	
Total	N	6	9	31	11	1	58	9	17	18	4	48
% in Q10		10.3%	15.5%	53.4%	19.0%	1.7%	100.0%	18.8%	35.4%	37.5%	8.3%	100.0%
% of Total		10.3%	15.5%	53.4%	19.0%	1.7%	100.0%	18.8%	35.4%	37.5%	8.3%	100.0%

Table 27: Trainees' opinions on the role of English teachers – percentage (Q23)
(1st and 2nd year)

23. I think...					
		1st year		2nd year	
		N	%	N	%
23.1. NS teachers play fundamental role in the correct use of the language.	Strongly agree	31	50.8%	29	60.4%
	Mostly agree	22	36.1%	13	27.1%
	Undecided	3	4.9%	2	4.2%
	Mostly disagree	2	3.3%	4	8.3%
	Strongly disagree	3	4.9%	0	0.0%
	Total	61	100.0%	48	100.0%
23.2. NSS teachers play fundamental role in the correct use of the language.	Strongly agree	12	20.0%	17	35.4%
	Mostly agree	38	63.3%	24	50.0%
	Undecided	8	13.3%	4	8.3%
	Mostly disagree	0	0.0%	3	6.3%
	Strongly disagree	2	3.3%	0	0.0%
	Total	60	100.0%	48	100.0%
23.3. I should spend more time getting students to obtain a native-like accent.	Strongly agree	0	0.0%	2	4.2%
	Mostly agree	27	45.8%	11	22.9%
	Undecided	13	22.0%	15	31.3%
	Mostly disagree	10	16.9%	15	31.3%
	Strongly disagree	9	15.3%	5	10.4%
	Total	59	100.0%	48	100.0%
23.4. I should spend more time trying to eradicate mistakes typical of European NNSs.	Strongly agree	3	4.9%	4	8.3%
	Mostly agree	25	41.0%	15	31.3%
	Undecided	19	31.1%	17	35.4%
	Mostly disagree	13	21.3%	11	22.9%
	Strongly disagree	1	1.6%	1	2.1%
	Total	61	100.0%	48	100.0%
23.5. I should spend more time getting students to communicate in English.	Strongly agree	39	63.9%	33	68.8%
	Mostly agree	17	27.9%	12	25.0%
	Undecided	3	4.9%	1	2.1%
	Mostly disagree	1	1.6%	2	4.2%
	Strongly disagree	1	1.6%	0	0.0%
	Total	61	100.0%	48	100.0%
23.6. It is important to teach different cultures use English differently.	Strongly agree	17	28.3%	29	60.4%
	Mostly agree	33	55.0%	14	29.2%
	Undecided	6	10.0%	3	6.3%
	Mostly disagree	3	5.0%	1	2.1%
	Strongly disagree	1	1.7%	1	2.1%
	Total	60	100.0%	48	100.0%
23.7. It is important to teach English features/ strategies that make oneself understood internationally.	Strongly agree	34	56.7%	48	100.0%
	Mostly agree	21	35.0%	34	70.8%
	Undecided	5	8.3%	11	22.9%
	Total	60	100.0%	48	100.0%

**Table 28: Crosstabulation –
Experience abroad with fundamental
role of NSs in correct language use
(1st and 2nd year)**

23.1. NS teachers play fundamental role in the correct use of the language											
		1 st year						2 nd year			
		Strongly agree	Mostly agree	Undecided	Mostly disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly agree	Mostly agree	Undecided	Total
8. Experience abroad	Yes	21	16	2	1	2	42	21	6	2	31
	% in Q8	50.0%	38.1%	4.8%	2.4%	4.8%	100.0%	67.7%	19.4%	6.5%	100.0%
	% of Total	34.4%	26.2%	3.3%	1.6%	3.3%	68.9%	43.8%	12.5%	4.2%	64.6%
	No	10	6	1	1	1	19	8	7	0	17
Total	% in Q8	52.6%	31.6%	5.3%	5.3%	5.3%	100.0%	47.1%	41.2%	0.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	16.4%	9.8%	1.6%	1.6%	1.6%	31.1%	16.7%	14.6%	0.0%	35.4%
	N	31	22	3	2	3	61	29	13	2	48
	% in Q8	50.8%	36.1%	4.9%	3.3%	4.9%	100.0%	60.4%	27.1%	4.2%	100.0%
	% of Total	50.8%	36.1%	4.9%	3.3%	4.9%	100.0%	60.4%	27.1%	4.2%	100.0%

**Table 29: Crosstabulation –
Experience abroad with fundamental
role of NNSs in correct language use
(1st and 2nd year)**

23.2. NSS teachers play fundamental role in the correct use of the language											
		1 st year						2 nd year			
		Strongly agree	Mostly agree	Undecided	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly agree	Mostly agree	Undecided	Mostly disagree	Total
8. Experience abroad	Yes	10	23	7	2	42	12	15	3	1	31
	% in Q8	23.8%	54.8%	16.7%	4.8%	100.0%	38.7%	48.4%	9.7%	3.2%	100.0%
	% of Total	16.7%	38.3%	11.7%	3.3%	70.0%	25.0%	31.3%	6.3%	2.1%	64.6%
	No	2	15	1	0	18	5	9	1	2	17
Total	% in Q8	11.1%	83.3%	5.6%	0.0%	100.0%	29.4%	52.9%	5.9%	11.8%	100.0%
	% of Total	3.3%	25.0%	1.7%	0.0%	30.0%	10.4%	18.8%	2.1%	4.2%	35.4%
	N	12	38	8	2	60	17	24	4	3	48
	% in Q8	20.0%	63.3%	13.3%	3.3%	100.0%	35.4%	50.0%	8.3%	6.3%	100.0%
	% of Total	20.0%	63.3%	13.3%	3.3%	100.0%	35.4%	50.0%	8.3%	6.3%	100.0%

Table 30: Crosstabulation – Experience abroad with getting students to obtain a native-like accent (1st and 2nd year)

23.3. I should spend more time getting students to obtain a native-like accent												
		1 st year					2 nd year					
		Mostly agree	Undecided	Mostly disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly agree	Mostly agree	Undecided	Mostly disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
8. Experience abroad	Yes	17	8	8	8	41	2	8	10	8	3	31
	% in Q8	41.5%	19.5%	19.5%	19.5%	100.0%	6.5%	25.8%	32.3%	25.8%	9.7%	100.0%
	% of Total	28.8%	13.6%	13.6%	13.6%	69.5%	4.2%	16.7%	20.8%	16.7%	6.3%	64.6%
	No	10	5	2	1	18	0	3	5	7	2	17
Total	% in Q8	55.6%	27.8%	11.1%	5.6%	100.0%	0.0%	17.6%	29.4%	41.2%	11.8%	100.0%
	% of Total	16.9%	8.5%	3.4%	1.7%	30.5%	0.0%	6.3%	10.4%	14.6%	4.2%	35.4%
	N	27	13	10	9	59	2	11	15	15	5	48
	% in Q8	45.8%	22.0%	16.9%	15.3%	100.0%	4.2%	22.9%	31.3%	31.3%	10.4%	100.0%
	% of Total	45.8%	22.0%	16.9%	15.3%	100.0%	4.2%	22.9%	31.3%	31.3%	10.4%	100.0%

Table 31: Crosstabulation – Experience abroad with eradicating mistakes typical of European speakers (1st and 2nd year)

23.4. I should spend more time trying to eradicate mistakes typical of European NNSs													
		1 st year						2 nd year					
		Strongly agree	Mostly agree	Undecided	Mostly disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly agree	Mostly agree	Undecided	Mostly disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
8. Experience abroad	Yes	3	16	14	9	0	42	3	9	11	8	0	31
	% in Q8	7.1%	38.1%	33.3%	21.4%	0.0%	100.0%	9.7%	29.0%	35.5%	25.8%	0.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	4.9%	26.2%	23.0%	14.8%	0.0%	68.9%	6.3%	18.8%	22.9%	16.7%	0.0%	64.6%
	No	0	9	5	4	1	19	1	6	6	3	1	17
Total	% in Q8	0.0%	47.4%	26.3%	21.1%	5.3%	100.0%	5.9%	35.3%	35.3%	17.6%	5.9%	100.0%
	% of Total	0.0%	14.8%	8.2%	6.6%	1.6%	31.1%	2.1%	12.5%	12.5%	6.3%	2.1%	35.4%
	N	3	25	19	13	1	61	4	15	17	11	1	48
	% in Q8	4.9%	41.0%	31.1%	21.3%	1.6%	100.0%	8.3%	31.3%	35.4%	22.9%	2.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	4.9%	41.0%	31.1%	21.3%	1.6%	100.0%	8.3%	31.3%	35.4%	22.9%	2.1%	100.0%

Table 32: Crosstabulation – Experience abroad with getting students to communicate (1st and 2nd year)

23.5. I should spend more time getting students to communicate in English													
		1 st year						2 nd year					
		Strongly agree	Mostly agree	Undecided	Mostly disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly agree	Mostly agree	Undecided	Mostly disagree	Total	
8. Experience abroad	Yes	N	29	9	3	1	0	42	20	9	0	2	31
		% in Q8	69.0%	21.4%	7.1%	2.4%	0.0%	100.0%	64.5%	29.0%	0.0%	6.5%	100.0%
		% of Total	47.5%	14.8%	4.9%	1.6%	0.0%	68.9%	41.7%	18.8%	0.0%	4.2%	64.6%
	No	N	10	8	0	0	1	19	13	3	1	0	17
		% in Q8	52.6%	42.1%	0.0%	0.0%	5.3%	100.0%	76.5%	17.6%	5.9%	0.0%	100.0%
Total		% of Total	16.4%	13.1%	0.0%	0.0%	1.6%	31.1%	27.1%	6.3%	2.1%	0.0%	35.4%
	N	39	17	3	1	1	61	33	12	1	2	48	
	% in Q8	63.9%	27.9%	4.9%	1.6%	1.6%	100.0%	68.8%	25.0%	2.1%	4.2%	100.0%	
	% of Total	63.9%	27.9%	4.9%	1.6%	1.6%	100.0%	68.8%	25.0%	2.1%	4.2%	100.0%	

Table 33: Crosstabulation – Experience abroad with teaching other cultures use English differently (1st and 2nd year)

23.6. It is important to teach different cultures use English differently														
		1 st year						2 nd year						
		Strongly agree	Mostly agree	Undecided	Mostly disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly agree	Mostly agree	Undecided	Mostly disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	
8. Experience abroad	Yes	N	15	18	6	2	1	42	21	6	2	1	1	31
		% in Q8	35.7%	42.9%	14.3%	4.8%	2.4%	100.0%	67.7%	19.4%	6.5%	3.2%	3.2%	100.0%
		% of Total	25.0%	30.0%	10.0%	3.3%	1.7%	70.0%	43.8%	12.5%	4.2%	2.1%	2.1%	64.6%
	No	N	2	15	0	1	0	18	8	8	1	0	0	17
	% in Q8		11.1%	83.3%	0.0%	5.6%	0.0%	100.0%	47.1%	47.1%	5.9%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	% of Total		3.3%	25.0%	0.0%	1.7%	0.0%	30.0%	16.7%	16.7%	2.1%	0.0%	0.0%	35.4%
Total	N		17	33	6	3	1	60	29	14	3	1	1	48
	% in Q8		28.3%	55.0%	10.0%	5.0%	1.7%	100.0%	60.4%	29.2%	6.3%	2.1%	2.1%	100.0%
	% of Total		28.3%	55.0%	10.0%	5.0%	1.7%	100.0%	60.4%	29.2%	6.3%	2.1%	2.1%	100.0%

Table 34: Crosstabulation – Experience abroad with teaching English features/ strategies that make one understood internationally (1st and 2nd year)

23.7. It is important to teach English features/ strategies that make oneself understood internationally									
		1st year				2nd year			
8. Experience abroad	Yes	Strongly agree	Mostly agree	Undecided	Total	Strongly agree	Mostly agree	Undecided	Total
		26	13	3	42	21	7	2	31
	% in Q8	61.9%	31.0%	7.1%	100.0%	67.7%	22.6%	6.5%	100.0%
	% of Total	43.3%	21.7%	5.0%	70.0%	43.8%	14.6%	4.2%	64.6%
No		8	8	2	18	13	4	0	17
		44.4%	44.4%	11.1%	100.0%	76.5%	23.5%	0.0%	100.0%
	% in Q8	13.3%	13.3%	3.3%	30.0%	27.1%	8.3%	0.0%	35.4%
	% of Total	34	21	5	60	34	11	2	48
	% in Q8	56.7%	35.0%	8.3%	100.0%	70.8%	22.9%	4.2%	100.0%
	% of Total	56.7%	35.0%	8.3%	100.0%	70.8%	22.9%	4.2%	100.0%
Total									

Table 35: Crosstabulation – ELT experience with the fundamental role of NSs in correct language use (1st and 2nd year)

23.1. NSs play a fundamental role in the correct use of the language																	
		1st year						2nd year									
10. ELT experience	None	N	Strongly agree	Mostly agree	Undecided	Mostly disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly agree	Mostly agree	Undecided	Mostly disagree	Total				
		% in Q10	61.9%	28.6%	4.8%	4.8%	0.0%	100.0%	77.8%	16.7%	0.0%	5.6%	100.0%				
	% of Total		21.3%	9.8%	1.6%	1.6%	0.0%	34.4%	29.2%	6.3%	0.0%	2.1%	37.5%				
	1-5 years	N	10	14	1	0	2	27	6	4	1	2	13				
	% in Q10		37.0%	51.9%	3.7%	0.0%	7.4%	100.0%	48.2%	30.8%	7.7%	15.4%	100.0%				
	% of Total		16.4%	23.0%	1.6%	0.0%	3.3%	44.3%	12.5%	8.3%	2.1%	4.2%	27.1%				
	6-10 years	N	7	2	1	0	0	10	7	3	0	1	11				
	% in Q10		70.0%	20.0%	10.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	63.6%	27.3%	0.0%	9.1%	100.0%				
	% of Total		11.5%	3.3%	1.6%	0.0%	0.0%	16.4%	14.6%	6.3%	0.0%	2.1%	22.9%				
	11+ years	N	1	0	0	1	1	3	2	3	1	0	6				
	% in Q10		25.0%	0.0%	0.0%	25.0%	50.0%	100.0%	37.5%	50.0%	12.5%	0.0%	100.0%				
	% of Total		1.6%	0.0%	0.0%	1.6%	1.6%	4.9%	4.2%	6.3%	2.1%	0.0%	12.5%				
Total		N	31	22	3	2	3	61	29	13	2	4	48				
	% in Q10		50.8%	36.1%	4.9%	3.3%	4.9%	100.0%	60.4%	27.1%	4.2%	8.3%	100.0%				
	% of Total		50.8%	36.1%	4.9%	3.3%	4.9%	100.0%	60.4%	27.1%	4.2%	8.3%	100.0%				

**Table 36: Crosstabulation –
ELT experience with the fundamental
role of NNSs in correct language use
(1st and 2nd year)**

23.2. NNSs play a fundamental role in the correct use of the language										
		1 st year				2 nd year				Total
		Strongly agree	Mostly agree	Undecided	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly agree	Mostly agree	Undecided	Total
10. ELT experience	None	N	2	17	2	21	7	10	0	18
	% in Q10		9.5%	81.0%	0.0%	100.0%	38.9%	55.6%	0.0%	100.0%
	% of Total		3.3%	28.3%	0.0%	34.9%	14.6%	20.8%	0.0%	37.5%
	1-5 years	N	2	19	4	26	4	6	2	13
	% in Q10		7.7%	73.1%	15.4%	100.0%	30.8%	46.2%	15.4%	100.0%
	% of Total		3.3%	31.7%	6.7%	43.3%	8.3%	12.5%	4.2%	27.1%
	6-10 years	N	7	2	1	10	4	5	1	11
	% in Q10		70.0%	20.0%	10.0%	100.0%	36.4%	45.5%	9.1%	100.0%
	% of Total		11.7%	3.3%	1.7%	16.7%	8.3%	10.4%	2.1%	22.9%
	11-15 years	N	1	0	1	3	2	3	1	6
	% in Q10		25.0%	0.0%	25.0%	50.0%	37.5%	50.0%	12.5%	100.0%
	% of Total		1.7%	0.0%	1.7%	5.1%	4.2%	6.3%	2.1%	12.5%
Total	N	12	38	8	2	60	17	24	4	48
	% in Q10		63.3%	13.3%	3.3%	100.0%	35.4%	50.0%	8.3%	100.0%
	% of Total		20.0%	63.3%	3.3%	100.0%	35.4%	50.0%	8.3%	100.0%

**Table 37: Crosstabulation – ELT
experience with getting students
to obtain a native-like accent
(1st and 2nd year)**

23.3. I should spend more time getting students to obtain a native-like accent										
		1 st year				2 nd year				Total
		Strongly agree	Mostly agree	Undecided	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly agree	Mostly agree	Undecided	Total
10. ELT experience	None	N	10	3	6	21	1	7	4	18
	% in Q10		47.6%	14.3%	28.6%	100.0%	5.6%	38.9%	22.2%	100.0%
	% of Total		16.9%	5.1%	10.2%	35.6%	2.1%	14.6%	8.3%	37.5%
	1-5 years	N	11	9	2	25	1	3	7	13
	% in Q10		44.0%	36.0%	8.0%	100.0%	7.7%	23.1%	53.8%	100.0%
	% of Total		18.6%	15.3%	3.4%	42.4%	2.1%	6.3%	14.6%	27.1%
	6-10 years	N	5	1	2	10	0	0	3	11
	% in Q10		50.0%	10.0%	20.0%	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	27.3%	100.0%
	% of Total		8.5%	1.7%	3.4%	16.9%	0.0%	0.0%	6.3%	22.9%
	11+ years	N	1	0	0	3	0	1	2	6
	% in Q10		25.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	12.5%	25.0%	100.0%
	% of Total		1.7%	0.0%	0.0%	5.1%	0.0%	2.1%	2.1%	12.5%
Total	N	27	13	10	9	59	2	11	15	48
	% in Q10		45.8%	22.0%	16.9%	100.0%	4.2%	22.9%	31.3%	100.0%
	% of Total		45.8%	22.0%	16.9%	100.0%	4.2%	22.9%	31.3%	100.0%

**Table 38: Crosstabulation –
ELT experience with teaching
how other cultures
use English differently
(1st and 2nd year)**

23.6. Important to teach different cultures use English differently												
		1 st year					2 nd year					Total
		Strongly agree	Mostly agree	Undecided	Mostly disagree	Strongly disagree	Strongly agree	Mostly agree	Undecided	Mostly disagree	Strongly disagree	
10. ELT experience	None	4	12	2	3	0	21	10	6	2	0	18
	% in Q10	19.0%	57.1%	9.5%	14.3%	0.0%	100.0%	55.6%	33.3%	11.1%	0.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	6.7%	20.0%	3.3%	5.0%	0.0%	35.0%	20.8%	12.5%	4.2%	0.0%	37.5%
	1-5 years	5	16	4	0	1	26	8	3	1	0	13
	% in Q10	19.2%	61.5%	15.4%	0.0%	3.8%	100.0%	61.5%	23.1%	7.7%	0.0%	100.0%
6-10 years	% of Total	8.3%	26.7%	6.7%	0.0%	1.7%	43.3%	16.7%	6.3%	2.1%	0.0%	27.1%
	N	5	5	0	0	0	10	6	4	0	1	11
	% in Q10	50.0%	50.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	54.5%	36.4%	0.0%	9.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	8.3%	8.3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	16.7%	12.5%	8.3%	0.0%	2.1%	22.9%
	11+ years	3	0	0	0	0	3	5	1	0	0	6
Total	% in Q10	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	75.0%	25.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	5.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	5.0%	10.4%	2.1%	0.0%	0.0%	12.5%
	N	17	33	6	3	1	60	29	14	3	1	48
	% in Q10	28.3%	55.0%	10.0%	5.0%	1.7%	100.0%	60.4%	29.2%	6.3%	2.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	28.3%	55.0%	10.0%	5.0%	1.7%	100.0%	60.4%	29.2%	6.3%	2.1%	100.0%

**Table 39: Crosstabulation – ELT
experience with teaching English
features/ strategies that make one
understood internationally
(1st and 2nd year)**

23.7. Important to teach features/ strategies that make oneself understood internationally and not only in some societies												
		1 st year					2 nd year					
		Strongly agree	Mostly agree	Undecided	Total	Strongly agree	Mostly agree	Undecided	Strongly disagree	Total		
10. ELT experience	None	N	10	9	2	21	13	5	0	18	100.0%	
		% in Q10	47.6%	42.9%	9.5%	100.0%	72.2%	27.8%	0.0%	100.0%		
		% of Total	16.7%	15.0%	3.3%	35.0%	27.1%	10.4%	0.0%	37.5%		
	1-5 years	N	15	9	2	26	9	2	1	13	100.0%	
		% in Q10	57.7%	34.6%	7.7%	100.0%	69.2%	15.4%	7.7%	100.0%		
		% of Total	25.0%	15.0%	3.3%	43.3%	18.8%	4.2%	2.1%	27.1%		
6-10 years	N	6	3	1	10	8	2	1	0	11	100.0%	
	% in Q10	60.0%	30.0%	10.0%	100.0%	72.7%	18.2%	9.1%	0.0%	100.0%		
	% of Total	10.0%	5.0%	1.7%	16.7%	16.7%	4.2%	2.1%	0.0%	22.9%		
11+ years	N	3	0	0	5	4	2	0	0	6	100.0%	
	% in Q10	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	62.5%	37.5%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%		
	% of Total	5.0%	0.0%	0.0%	5.0%	8.4%	4.2%	0.0%	0.0%	12.5%		
Total	N	34	21	5	60	34	11	2	1	48	100.0%	
	% in Q10	56.7%	35.0%	8.3%	100.0%	70.8%	22.9%	4.2%	2.1%	100.0%		
	% of Total	56.7%	35.0%	8.3%	100.0%	70.8%	22.9%	4.2%	2.1%	100.0%		

Table 40: Cultures and ELT – percentage (Q24)
(1st and 2nd year)

1 st year				2 nd year			
		N	%			N	%
24.1. American culture	1st place	7	11.5%	24.1. American culture	1st place	11	22.9%
	2nd place	43	70.5%		2nd place	31	64.6%
	3rd place	9	14.8%		3rd place	5	10.4%
	4th place	1	1.6%		4th place	1	2.1%
	5th place	1	1.6%		Total	48	100.0%
	Total	61	100.0%				
24.2. British culture	1st place	50	82.0%	24.2. British culture	1st place	33	68.8%
	2nd place	10	16.4%		2nd place	14	29.2%
	6th place	1	1.6%		3rd place	1	2.1%
	Total	61	100.0%		Total	48	100.0%
24.3. Cultures from other English-speaking countries	1st place	1	1.6%	24.3. Cultures from other English-speaking countries	2nd place	1	2.1%
	2nd place	4	6.6%		3rd place	29	60.4%
	3rd place	34	55.7%		4th place	15	31.3%
	4th place	17	27.9%		5th place	1	2.1%
	5th place	4	6.6%		6th place	2	4.2%
	6th place	1	1.6%		Total	48	100.0%
	Total	61	100.0%				
24.4. Cultures from L2 countries	3rd place	3	4.9%	24.4. Cultures from L2 countries	3rd place	1	2.1%
	4th place	25	41.0%		4th place	20	41.7%
	5th place	21	34.4%		5th place	20	41.7%
	6th place	12	19.7%		6th place	7	14.6%
	Total	61	100.0%		Total	48	100.0%
24.5. Other worldwide cultures	2nd place	1	1.6%	24.5. Other worldwide cultures	3rd place	1	2.1%
	4th place	3	4.9%		4th place	3	6.3%
	5th place	24	39.3%		5th place	18	37.5%
	6th place	33	54.1%		6th place	26	54.2%
	Total	61	100.0%		Total	48	100.0%
24.6. Students' own culture	1st place	3	4.9%	24.6. Students' own culture	1st place	4	8.3%
	2nd place	3	4.9%		2nd place	2	4.2%
	3rd place	15	24.6%		3rd place	11	22.9%
	4th place	15	24.6%		4th place	9	18.8%
	5th place	11	18.0%		5th place	9	18.8%
	6th place	14	23.0%		6th place	13	27.1%
	Total	61	100.0%		Total	48	100.0%

Table 41: Writing skills (Q25)
(1st and 2nd year)

1 st year				2 nd year			
		N	%			N	%
25.1. AmE standard	Strongly Agree	6	10.0%	25.1. AmE standard	Strongly Agree	3	6.3%
	Agree	20	33.3%		Agree	18	37.5%
	Undecided	16	26.7%		Undecided	12	25.0%
	Disagree	13	21.7%		Disagree	11	22.9%
	Strongly disagree	5	8.3%		Strongly disagree	4	8.3%
	Total	60	100.0%		Total	48	100.0%
25.2. BrE standard	Strongly Agree	17	28.3%	25.2. BrE standard	Strongly Agree	11	22.9%
	Agree	27	45.0%		Agree	19	39.6%
	Undecided	6	10.0%		Undecided	7	14.6%
	Disagree	6	10.0%		Disagree	8	16.7%
	Strongly disagree	4	6.7%		Strongly disagree	3	6.3%
	Total	60	100.0%		Total	48	100.0%
25.3. No grammar mistakes, even if AmE & BrE used interchangeably	Strongly Agree	28	46.7%	25.3. No grammar mistakes, even if AmE & BrE used interchangeably	Strongly Agree	15	31.3%
	Agree	22	36.7%		Agree	24	50.0%
	Undecided	6	10.0%		Undecided	5	10.4%
	Disagree	4	6.7%		Disagree	3	6.3%
	Strongly disagree	0	0.0%		Strongly disagree	1	2.1%
	Total	60	100.0%		Total	48	100.0%
25.4. Proficient writer (some mistakes, but communication effective)	Strongly Agree	33	54.1%	25.4. Proficient writer (some mistakes, but communication effective)	Strongly Agree	32	66.7%
	Agree	22	36.1%		Agree	13	27.1%
	Undecided	4	6.6%		Undecided	1	2.1%
	Strongly disagree	2	3.3%		Disagree	1	2.1%
	Total	61	100.0%		Strongly disagree	1	2.1%
25.5. Write appropriately according to context (genre/register)	Strongly Agree	36	59.0%	25.5. Write appropriately according to context (genre/register)	Total	48	100.0%
	Agree	22	36.1%		Strongly Agree	38	79.2%
	Disagree	1	1.6%		Agree	9	18.8%
	Strongly disagree	2	3.3%		Disagree	1	2.1%
	Total	61	100.0%		Total	48	100.0%

**Table 42: Crosstabulation –
Experience abroad
with AmE standard
(1st and 2nd year)**

25.1.1. Write according to the American standard variety															
				1 st year						2 nd year					
				Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
8. Experience abroad	Yes	N	4	12	13	8	5	42	3	10	8	7	3	31	
		% in Q8	9.5%	28.6%	31.0%	19.0%	11.9%	100.0%	9.7%	32.3%	25.8%	22.6%	9.7%	100.0%	
		% of Total	6.7%	20.0%	21.7%	13.3%	8.3%	70.0%	6.3%	20.8%	16.7%	14.6%	6.3%	64.6%	
	No	N	2	8	3	5	0	18	0	8	4	4	1	17	
		% in Q8	11.1%	44.4%	16.7%	27.8%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	47.1%	23.5%	23.5%	5.9%	100.0%	
		% of Total	3.3%	13.3%	5.0%	8.3%	0.0%	30.0%	0.0%	16.7%	8.3%	8.3%	2.1%	35.4%	
Total			N	6	20	16	13	5	60	3	18	12	11	4	48
		% in Q8	10.0%	33.3%	26.7%	21.7%	8.3%	100.0%	6.3%	37.5%	25.0%	22.9%	8.3%	100.0%	
		% of Total	10.0%	33.3%	26.7%	21.7%	8.3%	100.0%	6.3%	37.5%	25.0%	22.9%	8.3%	100.0%	

**Table 43: Crosstabulation –
Experience abroad
with BrE standard
(1st and 2nd year)**

25.2. Write according to the British standard variety														
				1 st year					2 nd year					
				Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
8. Experience abroad	Yes	N	11	18	5	4	4	42	10	10	5	4	2	31
		% in Q8	26.2%	42.9%	11.9%	9.5%	9.5%	100.0%	32.3%	32.3%	16.1%	12.9%	6.5%	100.0%
		% of Total	18.3%	30.0%	8.3%	6.7%	6.7%	70.0%	20.8%	20.8%	10.4%	8.3%	4.2%	64.6%
	No	N	6	9	1	2	0	18	1	9	2	4	1	17
% in Q8		33.3%	50.0%	5.6%	11.1%	0.0%	100.0%	5.9%	52.9%	11.8%	23.5%	5.9%	100.0%	
% of Total		10.0%	15.0%	1.7%	3.3%	0.0%	30.0%	2.1%	18.8%	4.2%	8.3%	2.1%	35.4%	
Total	N	N	17	27	6	6	4	60	11	19	7	8	3	48
		% in Q8	28.3%	45.0%	10.0%	10.0%	6.7%	100.0%	22.9%	39.6%	14.6%	16.7%	6.3%	100.0%
		% of Total	28.3%	45.0%	10.0%	10.0%	6.7%	100.0%	22.9%	39.6%	14.6%	16.7%	6.3%	100.0%

**Table 44: Crosstabulation –
Experience abroad with
AmE & BrE used interchangeably
(1st and 2nd year)**

25.3. Write without grammar mistakes, even if American and British varieties are used interchangeably												
		1 st year					2 nd year					
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Total	
8. Experience abroad	Yes	N	20	14	5	3	42	11	14	4	1	31
		% in Q8	47.6%	33.3%	11.9%	7.1%	100.0%	35.5%	45.2%	12.9%	3.2%	100.0%
		% of Total	33.3%	23.3%	8.3%	5.0%	70.0%	22.9%	29.2%	8.3%	2.1%	64.6%
	No	N	8	8	1	1	18	4	10	1	2	17
		% in Q8	44.4%	44.4%	5.6%	5.6%	100.0%	23.5%	58.8%	5.9%	11.8%	100.0%
		% of Total	13.3%	13.3%	1.7%	1.7%	30.0%	8.3%	20.8%	2.1%	4.2%	35.4%
Total		N	28	22	6	4	60	15	24	5	3	48
		% in Q8	46.7%	36.7%	10.0%	6.7%	100.0%	31.3%	50.0%	10.4%	6.3%	100.0%
		% of Total	46.7%	36.7%	10.0%	6.7%	100.0%	31.3%	50.0%	10.4%	6.3%	100.0%

**Table 45: Crosstabulation –
Experience abroad
with proficient writer
(1st and 2nd year)**

25.4. Be a proficient writer (some mistakes are made, but communication is effective)												
			1 st year					2 nd year				
			Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
8. Experience abroad	Yes	N	24	16	1	1	42	22	7	0	1	31
		% in Q8	57.1%	38.1%	2.4%	2.4%	100.0%	71.0%	22.6%	0.0%	3.2%	100.0%
		% of Total	39.3%	26.2%	1.6%	1.6%	68.9%	45.8%	14.6%	0.0%	2.1%	64.6%
	No	N	9	6	3	1	19	10	6	1	0	17
		% in Q8	47.4%	31.6%	15.8%	5.3%	100.0%	58.8%	35.3%	5.9%	0.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	14.8%	9.8%	4.9%	1.6%	31.1%	20.8%	12.5%	2.1%	0.0%	35.4%
Total		N	33	22	4	2	61	32	13	1	1	48
		% in Q8	54.1%	36.1%	6.6%	3.3%	100.0%	66.7%	27.1%	2.1%	2.1%	100.0%
		% of Total	54.1%	36.1%	6.6%	3.3%	100.0%	66.7%	27.1%	2.1%	2.1%	100.0%

**Table 46: Crosstabulation –
Experience abroad with write according
to the context (genre/ register)
(1st and 2nd year)**

25.5. Learn to write appropriately according to the context (genre/ register)										
			1 st year					2 nd year		
			Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Disagree	Total
8. Experience abroad	Yes	N	27	13	1	1	42	24	6	31
		% in Q8	64.3%	31.0%	2.4%	2.4%	100.0%	77.4%	19.4%	100.0%
		% of Total	44.3%	21.3%	1.6%	1.6%	68.9%	50.0%	12.5%	64.6%
	No	N	9	9	0	1	19	14	3	17
		% in Q8	47.4%	47.4%	0.0%	5.3%	100.0%	82.4%	17.6%	100.0%
Total		% of Total	14.8%	14.8%	0.0%	1.6%	31.1%	29.2%	6.3%	35.4%
		N	36	22	1	2	61	38	9	48
		% in Q8	59.0%	36.1%	1.6%	3.3%	100.0%	79.2%	18.8%	100.0%
		% of Total	59.0%	36.1%	1.6%	3.3%	100.0%	79.2%	18.8%	100.0%

**Table 47: Crosstabulation –
ELT experience
with AmE standard
(1st and 2nd year)**

25.1. Write according to the American standard variety														
							2nd year							
10. ELT experience	None	N	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
	1-5 years	N	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
			3	7	6	4	1	21	3	6	2	4	3	18
		% in Q10	14.3%	33.3%	28.6%	19.0%	4.8%	100.0%	16.7%	33.3%	11.1%	22.2%	16.7%	100.0%
		% of Total	5.0%	11.7%	10.0%	6.7%	1.7%	35.0%	6.3%	12.5%	4.2%	8.3%	6.3%	37.5%
		N	3	9	7	5	2	26	0	7	5	1	0	13
		% in Q10	11.5%	34.6%	26.9%	19.2%	7.7%	100.0%	0.0%	53.8%	38.5%	7.7%	0.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	5.0%	15.0%	11.7%	8.3%	3.3%	43.3%	0.0%	14.6%	10.4%	2.1%	0.0%	27.1%
		N	0	4	2	3	1	10	0	3	4	4	0	11
		% in Q10	0.0%	40.0%	20.0%	30.0%	10.0%	100.0%	0.0%	27.3%	36.4%	36.4%	0.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	0.0%	6.7%	3.3%	5.0%	1.7%	16.7%	0.0%	6.3%	8.3%	8.3%	0.0%	22.9%
		N	0	0	1	1	1	3	0	2	1	2	1	6
		% in Q10	0.0%	0.0%	25.0%	25.0%	50.0%	100.0%	0.0%	25.0%	25.0%	37.5%	12.5%	100.0%
		% of Total	0.0%	0.0%	1.7%	1.7%	1.7%	5.0%	0.0%	4.2%	2.1%	4.2%	2.1%	12.5%
Total		N	6	20	16	13	5	60	3	18	12	11	4	48
		% in Q10	10.0%	33.3%	26.7%	21.7%	8.3%	100.0%	6.3%	37.5%	25.0%	22.9%	8.3%	100.0%
		% of Total	10.0%	33.3%	26.7%	21.7%	8.3%	100.0%	6.3%	37.5%	25.0%	22.9%	8.3%	100.0%

**Table 48: Crosstabulation –
ELT experience
with BrE standard
(1st and 2nd year)**

25.2. Write according to the British standard variety												
		1 st year					2 nd year					Total
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	
10. ELT experience	None	N	8	1	3	1	21	7	4	2	3	18
	% in Q10		38.1%	4.8%	14.3%	4.8%	100.0%	38.9%	22.2%	11.1%	16.7%	100.0%
	% of Total		13.3%	1.7%	5.0%	1.7%	35.0%	14.6%	8.3%	4.2%	6.3%	37.5%
	1-5 years	N	7	2	3	1	26	4	5	3	1	13
	% in Q10		26.9%	7.7%	11.5%	3.8%	100.0%	30.8%	38.5%	23.1%	7.7%	100.0%
	% of Total		11.7%	3.3%	5.0%	1.7%	43.3%	8.3%	10.4%	6.3%	2.1%	27.1%
Total	6-10 years	N	2	5	0	1	10	0	7	2	2	11
	% in Q10		20.0%	50.0%	0.0%	10.0%	100.0%	0.0%	63.6%	18.2%	18.2%	100.0%
	% of Total		3.3%	8.3%	0.0%	1.7%	16.7%	0.0%	14.6%	4.2%	4.2%	22.9%
	11+ years	N	0	1	0	1	3	0	3	0	2	6
	% in Q10		0.0%	25.0%	0.0%	50.0%	100.0%	0.0%	50.0%	0.0%	25.0%	100.0%
	% of Total		0.0%	1.7%	0.0%	1.7%	5.0%	0.0%	6.3%	0.0%	4.2%	12.5%
Total		N	17	27	6	4	60	11	19	7	8	48
		% in Q10	28.3%	45.0%	10.0%	6.7%	100.0%	22.9%	39.6%	14.6%	16.7%	100.0%
		% of Total	28.3%	45.0%	10.0%	6.7%	100.0%	22.9%	39.6%	14.6%	16.7%	100.0%

**Table 49: Crosstabulation –
ELT experience with
AmE & BrE used interchangeably
(1st and 2nd year)**

25.3. Write without grammar mistakes, even if American and British varieties are used interchangeably												
		1 st year					2 nd year					Total
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	
10. ELT experience	None	N	9	7	4	1	21	7	8	2	0	18
	% in Q10		42.9%	33.3%	19.0%	4.8%	100.0%	38.9%	44.4%	11.1%	5.6%	100.0%
	% of Total		15.0%	11.7%	6.7%	1.7%	35.0%	14.6%	16.7%	4.2%	2.1%	37.5%
	1-5 years	N	14	9	1	2	26	5	6	1	0	13
	% in Q10		53.8%	34.6%	3.8%	7.7%	100.0%	38.5%	46.2%	7.7%	7.7%	100.0%
	% of Total		23.3%	15.0%	1.7%	3.3%	43.3%	10.4%	12.5%	2.1%	2.1%	27.1%
Total	6-10 years	N	3	5	1	1	10	1	7	1	2	11
	% in Q10		30.0%	50.0%	10.0%	10.0%	100.0%	9.1%	63.6%	9.1%	18.2%	100.0%
	% of Total		5.0%	8.3%	1.7%	1.7%	16.7%	2.1%	14.6%	2.1%	4.2%	22.9%
	11+ years	N	2	1	0	0	3	2	3	1	0	6
	% in Q10		75.0%	25.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	25.0%	50.0%	25.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	% of Total		3.4%	1.7%	0.0%	0.0%	5.0%	4.2%	6.3%	0.0%	0.0%	12.5%
Total		N	28	22	6	4	60	15	24	5	3	48
		% in Q10	46.7%	36.7%	10.0%	6.7%	100.0%	31.3%	50.0%	10.4%	6.3%	100.0%
		% of Total	46.7%	36.7%	10.0%	6.7%	100.0%	31.3%	50.0%	10.4%	6.3%	100.0%

**Table 50: Crosstabulation –
ELT experience with proficient writer
(1st and 2nd year)**

25.4. Be a proficient writer (some mistakes are made, but communication is effective)													
		1 st year					2 nd year						
10. ELT experience	None	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	
	N	14	5	2	0	21	12	4	1	5	0	18	
	% in Q10	66.7%	23.8%	9.5%	0.0%	100.0%	66.7%	22.2%	5.6%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	23.0%	8.2%	3.3%	0.0%	34.4%	25.0%	8.3%	2.1%	0.0%	0.0%	37.5%	
	1-5 years	N	14	10	2	1	27	8	4	0	0	1	13
		% in Q10	51.9%	37.0%	7.4%	3.7%	100.0%	61.5%	30.8%	0.0%	0.0%	7.7%	100.0%
	% of Total	23.0%	16.4%	3.3%	1.6%	44.3%	16.7%	8.3%	0.0%	0.0%	2.1%	27.1%	
	6-10 years	N	4	6	0	0	10	7	4	0	0	0	11
		% in Q10	40.0%	60.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	63.6%	36.4%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	6.6%	9.8%	0.0%	0.0%	16.4%	14.6%	8.3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	22.9%	
11+ years	N	1	1	0	1	3	5	1	0	0	0	6	
	% in Q10	25.0%	25.0%	0.0%	50.0%	100.0%	87.5%	12.5%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	
% of Total	1.6%	1.6%	0.0%	1.6%	4.9%	10.5%	2.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	12.5%		
Total		N	33	22	4	2	61	32	13	1	1	48	
		% in Q10	54.1%	36.1%	6.6%	3.3%	100.0%	66.7%	27.1%	2.1%	2.1%	100.0%	
		% of Total	54.1%	36.1%	6.6%	3.3%	100.0%	66.7%	27.1%	2.1%	2.1%	100.0%	

**Table 51: Crosstabulation –
ELT experience with writing
according to context (genre/register)
(1st and 2nd year)**

25.5. Learn to write appropriately according to the context (genre/ register)											
		1st year					2nd year				
10. ELT experience	None	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
	N	14	6	1	0	21	15	3	0	0	18
	% in Q10	66.7%	28.6%	4.8%	0.0%	100.0%	83.3%	16.7%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	23.0%	9.8%	1.6%	0.0%	34.4%	31.3%	6.3%	0.0%	0.0%	37.5%
	N	14	11	0	2	27	10	2	1	1	13
1-5 years	% in Q10	51.9%	40.7%	0.0%	7.4%	100.0%	76.9%	15.4%	7.7%	0.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	23.0%	18.0%	0.0%	3.3%	44.3%	20.8%	4.2%	2.1%	0.0%	27.1%
	N	7	3	0	0	10	7	4	0	0	11
6-10 years	% in Q10	70.0%	30.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	63.6%	36.4%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	11.5%	4.9%	0.0%	0.0%	16.4%	14.6%	8.3%	0.0%	0.0%	22.9%
	N	1	2	0	0	3	6	0	0	0	4
11+ years	% in Q10	50.0%	50.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	1.6%	3.3%	0.0%	0.0%	4.9%	12.5%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	12.5%
	N	36	22	1	2	61	38	9	1	1	48
Total		59.0%	36.1%	1.6%	3.3%	100.0%	79.2%	18.8%	2.1%	2.1%	100.0%
		59.0%	36.1%	1.6%	3.3%	100.0%	79.2%	18.8%	2.1%	2.1%	100.0%

Table 52: Speaking skills (Q26)
(1st and 2nd year)

1 st year				2 nd year			
		N	%			N	%
26.1. NS accent or similar	Strongly Agree	8	13.3%	26.1. NS accent or similar	Strongly Agree	4	8.3%
	Agree	21	35.0%		Agree	18	37.5%
	Undecided	13	21.7%		Undecided	9	18.8%
	Disagree	13	21.7%		Disagree	12	25.0%
	Strongly disagree	5	8.3%		Strongly disagree	5	10.4%
	Total	60	100.0%		Total	48	100.0%
26.2. Proficient speaker with Portuguese accent	Strongly Agree	26	42.6%	26.2. Proficient speaker with Portuguese accent	Strongly Agree	26	54.2%
	Agree	26	42.6%		Agree	18	37.5%
	Undecided	4	6.6%		Undecided	1	2.1%
	Disagree	4	6.6%		Disagree	2	4.2%
	Strongly disagree	1	1.6%		Strongly disagree	1	2.1%
	Total	61	100.0%		Total	48	100.0%
26.3. Proficient speaker (some mistakes, no hindrance in communication)	Strongly Agree	27	44.3%	26.3. Proficient speaker (some mistakes, no hindrance in communication)	Strongly Agree	25	52.1%
	Agree	24	39.3%		Agree	21	43.8%
	Undecided	4	6.6%		Undecided	1	2.1%
	Disagree	5	8.2%		Strongly disagree	1	2.1%
	Strongly disagree	1	1.6%		Total	48	100.0%
	Total	61	100.0%	26.4. Develop communicative strategies	Strongly Agree	31	64.6%
26.4. Develop communicative strategies	Strongly Agree	41	68.3%		Agree	15	31.3%
	Agree	16	26.7%		Disagree	1	2.1%
	Undecided	3	5.0%		Strongly disagree	1	2.1%
	Total	60	100.0%		Total	48	100.0%
26.5. Use language according to situations	Strongly Agree	37	60.7%	26.5. Use language according to situations	Strongly Agree	38	79.2%
	Agree	21	34.4%		Agree	9	18.8%
	Undecided	1	1.6%		Disagree	1	2.1%
	Disagree	1	1.6%		Total	48	100.0%
	Strongly disagree	1	1.6%				
	Total	61	100.0%				

**Table 53: Crosstabulation –
Experience abroad
with NS accent/ similar
(1st and 2nd year)**

26.1. Achieving a NS accent or similar															
				1 st year						2 nd year					
				Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
8. Experience abroad	Yes	N	3	18	7	9	5	42	4	10	8	5	4	31	
		% in Q8	7.1%	42.9%	16.7%	21.4%	11.9%	100.0%	12.9%	32.3%	25.8%	16.1%	12.9%	100.0%	
	% of Total	5.0%	30.0%	11.7%	15.0%	8.3%	70.0%	8.3%	20.8%	16.7%	10.4%	8.3%	64.6%		
	No	N	5	3	6	4	0	18	0	8	1	7	1	17	
		% in Q8	27.8%	16.7%	33.3%	22.2%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	47.1%	5.9%	41.2%	5.9%	100.0%	
	% of Total	8.3%	5.0%	10.0%	6.7%	0.0%	30.0%	0.0%	16.7%	2.1%	14.6%	2.1%	35.4%		
Total			N	8	21	13	13	5	60	4	18	9	12	5	48
			% in Q8	13.3%	35.0%	21.7%	21.7%	8.3%	100.0%	8.3%	37.5%	18.8%	25.0%	10.4%	100.0%
			% of Total	13.3%	35.0%	21.7%	21.7%	8.3%	100.0%	8.3%	37.5%	18.8%	25.0%	10.4%	100.0%

**Table 54: Crosstabulation –
Experience abroad with Proficient
speaker with Portuguese accent
(1st and 2nd year)**

26.2. Proficient speaker with a Portuguese accent														
				1 st year					2 nd year					
8. Experience abroad	Yes	N	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
			19	17	4	2	0	42	17	11	0	2	1	31
			45.2%	40.5%	9.5%	4.8%	0.0%	100.0%	54.8%	35.5%	0.0%	6.5%	3.2%	100.0%
	No	% of Total	31.1%	27.9%	6.6%	3.3%	0.0%	68.9%	35.4%	22.9%	0.0%	4.2%	2.1%	64.6%
			7	9	0	2	1	19	9	7	1	0	17	
			36.8%	47.4%	0.0%	10.5%	5.3%	100.0%	52.9%	41.2%	5.9%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Total	N	% of Total	11.5%	14.8%	0.0%	3.3%	1.6%	31.1%	18.8%	14.6%	2.1%	0.0%	0.0%	35.4%
			26	26	4	4	1	61	26	18	1	2	1	48
			42.6%	42.6%	6.6%	6.6%	1.6%	100.0%	54.2%	37.5%	2.1%	4.2%	2.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	42.6%	42.6%	6.6%	6.6%	1.6%	100.0%	54.2%	37.5%	2.1%	4.2%	2.1%	100.0%	

**Table 55: Crosstabulation –
Experience abroad with proficient
speaker who makes mistakes
but is intelligible
(1st and 2nd year)**

26.3. Proficient speaker, with some mistakes, but no hindrance in communication											
		1st year						2nd year			
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Total
8. Experience abroad	Yes	19	20	1	2	0	42	16	14	0	31
	% in Q8	45.2%	47.6%	2.4%	4.8%	0.0%	100.0%	51.6%	45.2%	0.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	31.1%	32.8%	1.6%	3.3%	0.0%	68.9%	33.3%	29.2%	0.0%	64.6%
	No	8	4	3	3	1	19	9	7	1	17
Total	% in Q8	42.1%	21.1%	15.8%	15.8%	5.3%	100.0%	52.9%	41.2%	5.9%	100.0%
	% of Total	13.1%	6.6%	4.9%	4.9%	1.6%	31.1%	18.8%	14.6%	2.1%	35.4%
	N	27	24	4	5	1	61	25	21	1	48
	% in Q8	44.3%	39.3%	6.6%	8.2%	1.6%	100.0%	52.1%	43.8%	2.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	44.3%	39.3%	6.6%	8.2%	1.6%	100.0%	52.1%	43.8%	2.1%	100.0%

**Table 56: Crosstabulation –
Experience abroad with
communicative strategies
(1st and 2nd year)**

26.4. Develop communicative strategies										
		1 st year					2 nd year			
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Total	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
8. Experience abroad	Yes	29	11	2	42	21	8	1	1	31
	% in Q8	69.0%	26.2%	4.8%	100.0%	67.7%	25.8%	3.2%	3.2%	100.0%
	% of Total	48.3%	18.3%	3.3%	70.0%	43.8%	16.7%	2.1%	2.1%	64.6%
	No	12	5	1	18	10	7	0	0	17
Total	% in Q8	66.7%	27.8%	5.6%	100.0%	58.8%	41.2%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	20.0%	8.3%	1.7%	30.0%	20.8%	14.6%	0.0%	0.0%	35.4%
	N	41	16	3	60	31	15	1	1	48
	% in Q8	68.3%	26.7%	5.0%	100.0%	64.6%	31.3%	2.1%	2.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	68.3%	26.7%	5.0%	100.0%	64.6%	31.3%	2.1%	2.1%	100.0%

**Table 57: Crosstabulation –
Experience abroad with
using language appropriately
(1st and 2nd year)**

26.5. Use language appropriately according to situations (formal/ informal)									
		1st year					2nd year		
8. Experience abroad	Yes	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Total
	N	28	12	1	1	0	42	25	31
	% in Q8	66.7%	28.6%	2.4%	2.4%	0.0%	100.0%	80.6%	100.0%
	% of Total	45.9%	19.7%	1.6%	1.6%	0.0%	68.9%	52.1%	64.6%
	No	9	9	0	0	1	19	13	17
	% in Q8	47.4%	47.4%	0.0%	0.0%	5.3%	100.0%	76.5%	100.0%
Total	% of Total	14.8%	14.8%	0.0%	0.0%	1.6%	31.1%	27.1%	35.4%
	N	37	21	1	1	1	61	38	48
	% in Q8	60.7%	34.4%	1.6%	1.6%	1.6%	100.0%	79.2%	100.0%
		60.7%	34.4%	1.6%	1.6%	1.6%	100.0%	79.2%	100.0%

**Table 58: Crosstabulation –
ELT experience
with NS accent/ similar
(1st and 2nd year)**

26.1. Achieving a NS accent or similar														
		1 st year						2 nd year						
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	
10. ELT experience	None	N	3	8	5	5	0	21	3	8	1	3	3	18
		% in Q10	14.3%	38.1%	23.8%	23.8%	0.0%	100.0%	16.7%	44.4%	5.6%	16.7%	16.7%	100.0%
	1-5 years	% of Total	5.0%	13.3%	8.3%	8.3%	0.0%	35.0%	6.3%	16.7%	2.1%	6.3%	6.3%	37.5%
		N	5	10	5	3	3	26	1	6	3	2	1	13
		% in Q10	19.2%	38.5%	19.2%	11.5%	11.5%	100.0%	7.7%	46.2%	23.1%	15.4%	7.7%	100.0%
		% of Total	8.3%	16.7%	8.3%	5.0%	5.0%	43.3%	2.1%	12.5%	6.3%	4.2%	2.1%	27.1%
6-10 years	N	0	2	3	4	1	10	0	2	3	5	1	11	
	% in Q10	0.0%	20.0%	30.0%	40.0%	10.0%	100.0%	0.0%	18.2%	27.3%	45.5%	9.1%	100.0%	
	% of Total	0.0%	3.3%	5.0%	6.7%	1.7%	16.7%	0.0%	4.2%	6.3%	10.4%	2.1%	22.9%	
11+ years	N	0	1	0	1	1	3	0	2	2	2	0	6	
	% in Q10	0.0%	25.0%	0.0%	25.0%	50.0%	100.0%	0.0%	37.5%	37.5%	25.0%	0.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	0.0%	1.7%	0.0%	1.7%	1.7%	5%	0.0%	4.2%	4.2%	4.2%	0.0%	12.5%	
Total	N	8	21	13	13	5	60	4	18	9	12	5	48	
	% in Q10	13.3%	35.0%	21.7%	21.7%	8.3%	100.0%	8.3%	37.5%	18.8%	25.0%	10.4%	100.0%	
	% of Total	13.3%	35.0%	21.7%	21.7%	8.3%	100.0%	8.3%	37.5%	18.8%	25.0%	10.4%	100.0%	

**Table 59: Crosstabulation –
ELT experience with Proficient
speaker with Portuguese accent
(1st and 2nd year)**

26.2. Proficient speaker with a Portuguese accent														
		1 st year						2 nd year						
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	
10. ELT experience	None	N	10	10	1	0	0	21	9	6	1	2	0	18
		% in Q10	47.6%	47.6%	4.8%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	50.0%	33.3%	5.6%	11.1%	0.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	16.4%	16.4%	1.5%	0.0%	0.0%	34.4%	18.8%	12.5%	2.1%	4.2%	0.0%	37.5%
	1-5 years	N	11	11	1	3	1	27	6	6	0	0	1	13
		% in Q10	40.7%	40.7%	3.7%	11.1%	3.7%	100.0%	46.2%	46.2%	0.0%	0.0%	7.7%	100.0%
		% of Total	18.0%	18.0%	1.5%	4.9%	1.6%	44.3%	12.5%	12.5%	0.0%	0.0%	2.1%	27.1%
6-10 years	N	3	5	1	1	0	10	7	4	0	0	0	11	
	% in Q10	30.0%	50.0%	10.0%	10.0%	0.0%	100.0%	63.6%	36.4%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	4.9%	8.2%	1.5%	1.6%	0.0%	16.4%	14.6%	8.3%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	22.9%	
11+ years	N	2	0	1	0	0	3	4	2	0	0	0	6	
	% in Q10	75.0%	0.0%	25.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	75.0%	25.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	3.2%	0.0%	1.5%	0.0%	0.0%	4.9%	8.4%	4.2%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	12.5%	
Total	N	26	26	4	4	1	61	26	18	1	2	1	48	
	% in Q10	42.6%	42.6%	6.8%	6.6%	1.6%	100.0%	54.2%	37.5%	2.1%	4.2%	2.1%	100.0%	
	% of Total	42.6%	42.6%	6.6%	6.6%	1.6%	100.0%	54.2%	37.5%	2.1%	4.2%	2.1%	100.0%	

**Table 60: Crosstabulation – ELT
experience with proficient speaker
who makes mistakes but is intelligible
(1st and 2nd year)**

26.3. Proficient speaker, with some mistakes, but no hindrance in communication													
		1 st year					2 nd year						
10. ELT experience	None	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Strongly disagree	Total	
		N											
		% in Q10											
	1-5 years	N	10	7	1	3	0	21	6	11	1	0	18
		% of Total	47.6%	33.3%	4.8%	14.3%	0.0%	100.0%	33.3%	61.1%	5.6%	0.0%	100.0%
6-10 years	N	10	12	2	2	1	27	6	6	0	1	13	
	% of Total	37.0%	44.4%	7.4%	7.4%	3.7%	100.0%	46.2%	46.2%	0.0%	7.7%	100.0%	
11+ years	N	6	3	1	0	0	10	9	2	0	0	11	
	% of Total	60.0%	30.0%	10.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	81.8%	18.2%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	
Total	N	27	24	4	5	1	61	25	21	1	1	48	
	% of Total	44.3%	39.3%	6.6%	8.2%	1.6%	100.0%	52.1%	43.8%	2.1%	2.1%	100.0%	

**Table 61: Crosstabulation –
ELT experience
with communicative strategies
(1st and 2nd year)**

26.4. Develop communicative strategies											
				1 st year				2 nd year			
10. ELT experience				Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Total	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
				N				N			
	None	% in Q10	% of Total	15	5	1	21	10	7	1	0
				71.4%	23.8%	4.8%	100.0%	55.6%	38.9%	5.6%	0.0%
				25.0%	8.3%	1.7%	35.0%	20.8%	14.6%	2.1%	0.0%
	1-5 years	% in Q10	% of Total	17	7	2	26	7	5	0	1
				65.4%	26.9%	7.7%	100.0%	53.8%	38.5%	0.0%	7.7%
				28.3%	11.7%	3.3%	43.3%	14.6%	10.4%	0.0%	2.1%
	6-10 years	% in Q10	% of Total	6	4	0	10	9	2	0	0
				60.0%	40.0%	0.0%	100.0%	81.8%	18.2%	0.0%	0.0%
				10.0%	6.7%	0.0%	16.7%	18.6%	4.2%	0.0%	0.0%
	11-15 years	% in Q10	% of Total	3	0	0	3	5	1	0	0
				100.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	87.5%	12.5%	0.0%	0.0%
				5.0%	0.0%	0.0%	5.0%	10.5%	2.1%	0.0%	0.0%
Total		% in Q10	% of Total	41	16	3	60	31	15	1	1
				68.3%	26.7%	5.0%	100.0%	64.6%	31.3%	2.1%	2.1%
				68.3%	26.7%	5.0%	100.0%	64.6%	31.3%	2.1%	2.1%

**Table 62: Crosstabulation –
ELT experience with
using language appropriately
(1st and 2nd year)**

26.5. Use language appropriately according to situations (formal/ informal)											
				1 st year				2 nd year			
10. ELT experience				Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Disagree
				N							Total
	None	% in Q10	% of Total	15	5	0	1	0	21	14	4
				71.4%	23.8%	0.0%	4.8%	0.0%	100.0%	77.8%	22.2%
				24.6%	8.2%	0.0%	1.6%	0.0%	34.4%	29.2%	8.3%
	1-5 years	% in Q10	% of Total	16	9	1	0	1	27	9	3
				59.3%	33.3%	3.7%	0.0%	3.7%	100.0%	69.2%	23.1%
				26.2%	14.8%	1.6%	0.0%	1.6%	44.3%	18.8%	6.3%
	6-10 years	% in Q10	% of Total	4	6	0	0	0	10	9	2
				40.0%	60.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	81.8%	18.2%
				6.6%	9.8%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	16.4%	18.8%	4.2%
	11+ years	% in Q10	% of Total	2	1	0	0	0	3	6	0
				75.0%	25.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%	0.0%
				3.2%	1.6%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	4.9%	12.5%	0.0%
Total		% in Q10	% of Total	37	21	1	1	1	61	38	9
				60.7%	34.4%	1.6%	1.6%	1.6%	100.0%	79.2%	18.8%
				60.7%	34.4%	1.6%	1.6%	1.6%	100.0%	79.2%	18.8%

Table 63: Listening and reading skills (Q27)
(1st and 2nd year)

1 st year				2 nd year			
		N	%			N	%
27.1. American materials	Strongly Agree	24	40.0%	27.1.	Strongly Agree	26	54.2%
	Agree	31	51.7%	American	Agree	15	31.3%
	Undecided	3	5.0%	materials	Undecided	6	12.5%
	Disagree	1	1.7%		Strongly disagree	1	2.1%
	Strongly disagree	1	1.7%		Total	48	100.0%
	Total	60	100.0%				
27.2. British materials	Strongly Agree	34	56.7%	27.2.	Strongly Agree	31	64.6%
	Agree	23	38.3%	British	Agree	12	25.0%
	Undecided	1	1.7%	materials	Undecided	4	8.3%
	Disagree	1	1.7%		Disagree	1	2.1%
	Strongly disagree	1	1.7%		Total	48	100.0%
	Total	60	100.0%				
27.3. Materials produced in other NS countries	Strongly Agree	10	16.9%	27.3.	Strongly Agree	16	33.3%
	Agree	37	62.7%	Materials	Agree	25	52.1%
	Undecided	9	15.3%	produced in	Undecided	6	12.5%
	Disagree	3	5.1%	other NS	Disagree	1	2.1%
	Total	59	100.0%	countries	Total	48	100.0%
27.4. Materials produced in postcolonial countries	Strongly Agree	9	15.3%	27.4.	Strongly Agree	10	20.8%
	Agree	23	39.0%	Materials	Agree	19	39.6%
	Undecided	14	23.7%	produced in	Undecided	12	25.0%
	Disagree	13	22.0%	postcolonial	Disagree	6	12.5%
	Total	59	100.0%	countries	Strongly disagree	1	2.1%
					Total	48	100.0%
27.5. Materials produced in NNS countries	Strongly Agree	5	8.6%	27.5.	Strongly Agree	7	14.6%
	Agree	18	31.0%	Materials	Agree	22	45.8%
	Undecided	24	41.4%	produced in	Undecided	15	31.3%
	Disagree	8	13.8%	NNS countries	Disagree	3	6.3%
	Strongly disagree	3	5.2%		Strongly disagree	1	2.1%
	Total	58	100.0%		Total	48	100.0%

**Table 64: Crosstabulation –
Experience abroad
with American materials
(1st and 2nd year)**

27.1. American listening and reading materials												
		1st year						2nd year				
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Total
8. Experience abroad	Yes	N	15	22	3	1	41	20	7	3	1	31
		% in Q8	36.6%	53.7%	7.3%	2.4%	100.0%	64.5%	22.6%	9.7%	3.2%	100.0%
		% of Total	25.0%	36.7%	5.0%	1.7%	68.3%	41.7%	14.6%	6.3%	2.1%	64.6%
	No	N	9	9	0	0	19	6	8	3	0	17
Total		% in Q8	47.4%	47.4%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	35.3%	47.1%	17.6%	0.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	15.0%	15.0%	0.0%	0.0%	31.7%	12.5%	16.7%	6.3%	0.0%	35.4%
	N		24	31	3	1	60	26	15	6	1	48
		% in Q8	40.0%	51.7%	5.0%	1.7%	100.0%	54.2%	31.3%	12.5%	2.1%	100.0%
	% of Total		40.0%	51.7%	5.0%	1.7%	100.0%	54.2%	31.3%	12.5%	2.1%	100.0%

**Table 65: Crosstabulation –
Experience abroad
with British materials
(1st and 2nd year)**

27.2. British listening and reading materials												
		1st year						2nd year				
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Total
8. Experience abroad	Yes	N	23	16	1	0	41	22	6	2	1	31
		% in Q8	56.1%	39.0%	2.4%	0.0%	100.0%	71.0%	19.4%	6.5%	3.2%	100.0%
		% of Total	38.3%	26.7%	1.7%	0.0%	68.3%	45.8%	12.5%	4.2%	2.1%	64.6%
	No	N	11	7	0	1	19	9	6	2	0	17
Total		% in Q8	57.9%	36.8%	0.0%	5.3%	100.0%	52.9%	35.3%	11.8%	0.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	18.3%	11.7%	0.0%	1.7%	31.7%	18.8%	12.5%	4.2%	0.0%	35.4%
	N		34	23	1	1	60	31	12	4	1	48
		% in Q8	56.7%	38.3%	1.7%	1.7%	100.0%	64.6%	25.0%	8.3%	2.1%	100.0%
	% of Total		56.7%	38.3%	1.7%	1.7%	100.0%	64.6%	25.0%	8.3%	2.1%	100.0%

**Table 66: Crosstabulation –
Experience abroad with materials
produced in other NS countries
(1st and 2nd year)**

27.3. Listening and reading materials produced in other NS countries											
		1st year					2nd year				
8. Experience abroad	Yes	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Total
	N	7	27	5	2	41	13	16	2	0	31
	% in Q8	17.1%	65.9%	12.2%	4.9%	100.0%	41.9%	51.6%	6.5%	0.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	11.9%	45.8%	8.5%	3.4%	69.5%	27.1%	33.3%	4.2%	0.0%	64.6%
	No	3	10	4	1	18	3	9	4	1	17
Total	N	10	37	9	3	59	16	25	6	1	48
	% in Q8	16.9%	62.7%	15.3%	5.1%	100.0%	33.3%	52.1%	12.5%	2.1%	100.0%
	% of Total	16.9%	62.7%	15.3%	5.1%	100.0%	33.3%	52.1%	12.5%	2.1%	100.0%

**Table 67: Crosstabulation –
Experience abroad with materials
produced in Postcolonial countries
(1st and 2nd year)**

27.4. Listening and reading materials produced in Postcolonial countries											
		1st year					2nd year				
8. Experience abroad	Yes	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Total
	N	6	13	12	10	41	9	13	5	4	31
	% in Q8	14.6%	31.7%	29.3%	24.4%	100.0%	29.0%	41.9%	16.1%	12.9%	100.0%
	% of Total	10.2%	22.0%	20.3%	16.9%	69.5%	18.8%	27.1%	10.4%	8.3%	64.6%
	No	3	10	2	3	18	1	6	7	2	17
Total	N	9	23	14	13	59	10	19	12	6	48
	% in Q8	15.3%	39.0%	23.7%	22.0%	100.0%	20.8%	39.6%	25.0%	12.5%	100.0%
	% of Total	15.3%	39.0%	23.7%	22.0%	100.0%	20.8%	39.6%	25.0%	12.5%	100.0%

**Table 68: Crosstabulation –
Experience abroad with materials
produced in NNS countries
(1st and 2nd year)**

27.5. Listening and reading materials produced in NNS countries															
				1 st year					2 nd year						
				Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
8. Experience abroad	Yes	N		4	12	17	5	3	41	6	15	8	1	1	31
		% in Q8		9.8%	29.3%	41.5%	12.2%	7.3%	100.0%	19.4%	48.4%	25.8%	3.2%	3.2%	100.0%
		% of Total		6.9%	20.7%	29.3%	8.6%	5.2%	70.7%	12.5%	31.3%	16.7%	2.1%	2.1%	64.6%
	No	N		1	6	7	3	0	17	1	7	7	2	0	17
		% in Q8		5.9%	35.3%	41.2%	17.6%	0.0%	100.0%	5.9%	41.2%	41.2%	11.8%	0.0%	100.0%
		% of Total		1.7%	10.3%	12.1%	5.2%	0.0%	29.3%	2.1%	14.6%	14.6%	4.2%	0.0%	35.4%
Total		N		5	18	24	8	3	58	7	22	15	3	1	48
		% in Q8		8.6%	31.0%	41.4%	13.8%	5.2%	100.0%	14.6%	45.8%	31.3%	6.3%	2.1%	100.0%
		% of Total		8.6%	31.0%	41.4%	13.8%	5.2%	100.0%	14.6%	45.8%	31.3%	6.3%	2.1%	100.0%

**Table 69: Crosstabulation –
ELT experience
with American materials
(1st and 2nd year)**

27.1. American listening and reading materials																	
		1 st year							2 nd year								
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Strongly disagree	Total					
10. ELT experience	None	9	9	3	0	0	21	8	8	2	0	18					
	% in Q10	42.9%	42.9%	14.3%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	44.4%	44.4%	11.1%	0.0%	100.0%					
	% of Total	15.0%	15.0%	5.0%	0.0%	0.0%	35.0%	16.7%	16.7%	4.2%	0.0%	37.5%					
	1-5 years	9	16	0	0	1	26	8	2	2	1	13					
	% in Q10	34.6%	61.5%	0.0%	0.0%	3.8%	100.0%	61.5%	15.4%	15.4%	7.7%	100.0%					
6-10 years	% of Total	15.0%	26.7%	0.0%	0.0%	1.7%	43.3%	16.7%	4.2%	4.2%	2.1%	27.1%					
	N	4	5	0	1	0	10	7	3	1	0	11					
	% in Q10	40.0%	50.0%	0.0%	10.0%	0.0%	100.0%	63.6%	27.3%	9.1%	0.0%	100.0%					
	% of Total	6.7%	8.3%	0.0%	1.7%	0.0%	16.7%	14.6%	6.3%	2.1%	0.0%	22.9%					
	11+ years	2	1	0	0	0	3	3	2	1	0	6					
Total	% in Q10	75.0%	25.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	50.0%	25.0%	25.0%	0.0%	100.0%					
	% of Total	3.4%	1.7%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	5.0%	6.3%	4.2%	2.1%	0.0%	12.5%					
	N	24	31	3	1	1	60	26	15	6	1	48					
	% in Q10	40.0%	51.7%	5.0%	1.7%	1.7%	100.0%	54.2%	31.3%	12.5%	2.1%	100.0%					
	% of Total	40.0%	54.7%	5.0%	1.7%	1.7%	100.0%	54.2%	31.3%	12.5%	2.1%	100.0%					

**Table 70: Crosstabulation –
ELT experience with British materials
(1st and 2nd year)**

27.2. British listening and reading materials												
			1st year					2nd year				
			Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Total
10. ELT experience	None	N	13	7	1	0	0	21	11	6	1	18
	% in Q10		61.9%	33.3%	4.8%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	61.1%	33.3%	5.6%	100.0%
	% of Total		21.7%	11.7%	1.7%	0.0%	0.0%	35.0%	22.9%	12.5%	2.1%	37.5%
	1-5 years	N	14	11	0	0	1	26	9	1	2	13
	% in Q10		53.8%	42.3%	0.0%	0.0%	3.8%	100.0%	69.2%	7.7%	15.4%	100.0%
6-10 years	% of Total		23.3%	18.3%	0.0%	0.0%	1.7%	43.3%	18.8%	2.1%	4.2%	27.1%
	N		5	4	0	1	0	10	8	2	1	11
	% in Q10		50.0%	40.0%	0.0%	10.0%	0.0%	100.0%	72.7%	18.2%	9.1%	100.0%
11+ years	% of Total		8.3%	6.7%	0.0%	1.7%	0.0%	16.7%	16.7%	4.2%	2.1%	22.9%
	N		2	1	0	0	0	3	3	3	0	6
	% in Q10		75.0%	25.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	50.0%	50.0%	0.0%	100.0%
Total	% of Total		3.4%	1.7%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	5.0%	6.3%	6.3%	0.0%	12.5%
	N		34	23	1	1	1	60	31	12	4	48
	% in Q10		56.7%	38.3%	1.7%	1.7%	1.7%	100.0%	64.6%	25.0%	8.3%	100.0%
	% of Total		56.7%	38.3%	1.7%	1.7%	1.7%	100.0%	64.6%	25.0%	8.3%	100.0%

**Table 71: Crosstabulation –
ELT experience with materials
produced in other NS countries
(1st and 2nd year)**

27.3. Listening and reading materials produced in other NS countries												
			1st year					2nd year				
			Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Total
10. ELT experience	None	N	2	13	5	1	21	3	13	1	1	18
	% in Q10		9.5%	61.9%	23.8%	4.8%	100.0%	16.7%	72.2%	5.6%	5.6%	100.0%
	% of Total		3.4%	22.0%	8.5%	1.7%	35.6%	6.3%	27.1%	2.1%	2.1%	37.5%
	1-5 years	N	3	19	3	0	25	7	4	2	0	13
	% in Q10		12.0%	76.0%	12.0%	0.0%	100.0%	53.8%	30.8%	15.4%	0.0%	100.0%
6-10 years	% of Total		5.1%	32.2%	5.1%	0.0%	42.4%	14.6%	8.3%	4.2%	0.0%	27.1%
	N		3	4	1	2	10	3	6	2	0	11
	% in Q10		30.0%	40.0%	10.0%	20.0%	100.0%	27.3%	54.5%	18.2%	0.0%	100.0%
11+ years	% of Total		5.1%	6.8%	1.7%	3.4%	16.9%	6.3%	12.5%	4.2%	0.0%	22.9%
	N		3	1	0	0	3	3	2	1	0	6
	% in Q10		75.0%	25.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	50.0%	37.5%	12.5%	0.0%	100.0%
Total	% of Total		3.4%	1.7%	0.0%	0.0%	5.1%	6.3%	4.2%	2.1%	0.0%	12.5%
	N		10	37	9	3	59	16	25	6	1	48
	% in Q10		16.9%	62.7%	15.3%	5.1%	100.0%	33.3%	52.1%	12.5%	2.1%	100.0%
	% of Total		16.9%	62.7%	15.3%	5.1%	100.0%	33.3%	52.1%	12.5%	2.1%	100.0%

**Table 72: Crosstabulation –
ELT experience with materials
produced in Postcolonial countries
(1st and 2nd year)**

27.4. Listening and reading materials produced in Postcolonial countries														
				1 st year					2 nd year					
				Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total
10. ELT experience	None	N		2	7	7	5	21	2	8	2	5	1	18
		% in Q10		9.5%	33.3%	33.3%	23.8%	100.0%	11.1%	44.4%	11.1%	27.8%	5.6%	100.0%
		% of Total		3.4%	11.9%	11.9%	8.5%	35.6%	4.2%	16.7%	4.2%	10.4%	2.1%	37.5%
	1-5 years	N		3	12	4	6	25	4	4	5	0	0	13
		% in Q10		12.0%	48.0%	16.0%	24.0%	100.0%	30.8%	30.8%	38.5%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
		% of Total		5.1%	20.3%	6.8%	10.2%	42.4%	8.3%	8.3%	10.4%	0.0%	0.0%	27.1%
	6-10 years	N		2	3	3	2	10	1	6	3	1	0	11
		% in Q10		20.0%	30.0%	30.0%	20.0%	100.0%	9.1%	54.5%	27.3%	9.1%	0.0%	100.0%
		% of Total		3.4%	5.1%	5.1%	3.4%	16.9%	2.1%	12.5%	6.3%	2.1%	0.0%	22.9%
	11+ years	N		2	1	0	0	3	3	1	2	0	0	6
		% in Q10		75.0%	25.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	50.0%	12.5%	37.5%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%
		% of Total		3.4%	1.7%	0.0%	0.0%	5.1%	6.3%	2.1%	4.2%	0.0%	0.0%	12.5%
	Total	N		9	23	14	13	59	10	19	12	6	1	48
		% in Q10		15.3%	39.0%	23.7%	22.0%	100.0%	20.8%	39.6%	25.0%	12.5%	2.1%	100.0%
		% of Total		15.3%	39.0%	23.7%	22.0%	100.0%	20.8%	39.6%	25.0%	12.5%	2.1%	100.0%

**Table 73: Crosstabulation –
ELT experience with materials
produced in NNS countries
(1st and 2nd year)**

27.5. Listening and reading materials produced in NNS countries															
			1 st year						2 nd year						
			Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree	Total	
10. ELT experience	None	N	1	6	10	3	1	21	2	7	8	1	0	18	
	% in Q10		4.8%	28.6%	47.6%	14.3%	4.8%	100.0%	11.1%	38.9%	44.4%	5.6%	0.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total		1.7%	10.3%	17.2%	5.2%	1.7%	36.2%	4.2%	14.6%	16.7%	2.1%	0.0%	37.5%	
	1-5 years	N	3	8	9	4	0	24	3	7	3	0	0	13	
	% in Q10		12.5%	33.3%	37.5%	16.7%	0.0%	100.0%	23.1%	53.8%	23.1%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total		5.2%	13.8%	15.5%	6.9%	0.0%	41.4%	6.3%	14.6%	6.3%	0.0%	0.0%	27.1%	
	6-10 years	N	1	2	4	1	2	10	0	7	2	1	1	11	
	% in Q10		10.0%	20.0%	40.0%	10.0%	20.0%	100.0%	0.0%	63.6%	18.2%	9.1%	9.1%	100.0%	
	% of Total		1.7%	3.4%	6.9%	1.7%	3.4%	17.2%	0.0%	14.6%	4.2%	2.1%	2.1%	22.9%	
	11+ years	N	0	2	1	0	0	3	2	1	2	1	0	6	
	% in Q10		0.0%	75.0%	25.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	25.0%	12.5%	37.5%	25.0%	0.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total		0.0%	3.4%	1.7%	0.0%	0.0%	5.1%	4.2%	2.1%	4.2%	2.1%	0.0%	12.5%	
	Total	N	5	18	24	8	3	58	7	22	15	3	1	48	
	% in Q10		8.6%	31.0%	41.4%	13.8%	5.2%	100.0%	14.6%	45.8%	31.3%	6.3%	2.1%	100.0%	
	% of Total		8.6%	31.0%	41.4%	13.8%	5.2%	100.0%	14.6%	45.8%	31.3%	6.3%	2.1%	100.0%	